

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

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## CONTENTS

	PAGE
The Colleges and Historical Research, by Prof. M. W. Jernegan	105
Slavery in the Territories after 1850, by Esther E. Sharpe - -	107
History and Other Social Studies in the Schools; Report of a Committee of the American Historical Association, Prof. A. C. Krey, Chairman - - -	110
Distribution of Governmental Powers, by Prof. F. H. Garver -	122
Historical Material of a Geographic Nature, by Prof. R. M. Tryon	124

Book Reviews, edited by Prof. H. J. Carman, 133; Middle States Association Program, 140; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 140; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 142.

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## The Colleges and Historical Research

BY PROFESSOR M. W. JERNEGAN, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

At the meeting of the American Historical Association at Rochester, December 28-30, 1927, the writer read a paper based on the replies received to a questionnaire to Doctors of Philosophy in History as to why there is no more productive research on the part of holders of the Ph.D. degrees in History.<sup>1</sup> Because of the widespread interest in the subject, and also for the purpose of proposing plans for research connected with the fifth question of the questionnaire, this article is written. It is in substance a paper which the writer read at the meeting of the American Historical Association at Richmond in 1924. The question referred to above reads "Does your college library, or any other depository of historical material in your immediate vicinity, contain sufficient materials for a line of research that could be pursued with profit?"

It is well-known that one of the serious weaknesses of historical teaching in American colleges is the tendency to study history as a memory exercise; a slavish dependence on a textbook, supplemented perhaps by more or less "collateral reading" in other secondary works. Some of the effects on the student are, *first*: A tendency to accept as final the authority of the textbook, or other secondary source, for the facts and interpretations of history. Some teachers, for example, have the impression that the facts of the American Revolution and the character of the participants are known and fixed for all time. A student once commented on a professor's statement of fact with the remark, but "John Fiske says to the contrary," and triumphantly added, "now what would you say to that?" The student did not realize that John Fiske might have been mistaken, and remained unconvinced even when evidence was produced to prove that Fiske was wrong.

Secondly, history studied from secondary sources does not acquaint the student with the nature of the sources on which history is based; nor with the methods used by historians; nor with the major problems connected with the writing of history; such as accuracy as to statements of fact, and a trustworthy interpretation of the facts. There is lack of knowledge on the part of many students of the value of different kinds of historical evidence; a distressing failure to distinguish between ascertained and proven facts and mere opinions, legends, and rumors. There is failure to appreciate the tendency of historians to exhibit bias or prejudice; a tendency to accept without question, statements and interpretations colored by national, sectional, party, religious class or family bias and interest. Some students of this type are

anxious for "a new, truthful, unbiased history of the Civil War, written from the Southern standpoint." Such are common weaknesses of American college students due, in part at least, to present aims and methods of teaching history.

There should be no dispute concerning the desirability of having for *one* of the aims and purposes of teaching history in colleges, that of producing in the student a questioning attitude towards the alleged facts of history; of giving him a little knowledge of the raw materials; of teaching him how and why authors differ as to facts and their interpretation; and of familiarizing him with the simple methods of testing statements or interpretations based on weak or biased evidence or mere opinion. One method of accomplishing these ends is to encourage professors and students to engage in historical research.

The growing practice, even in the smaller colleges, of insisting that the head of the department of history should have a doctor's degree, makes it more possible to realize such aims, provided two conditions are met. The hard-pressed and often overworked college professor of history often fails to realize that original sources are available for research. Too often also he has no desire to carry out a piece of research. He must therefore first acquaint himself with the available sources; and second he must have a desire to investigate them. Unless a professor is active himself he is not likely to stimulate the desire for inquiry and investigation in others.

One of the difficulties with the average professor is his lack of appreciation of the sources available within a short distance of his college. He often gives the familiar excuse, "Our college library is so small, even in secondary works, and so lacking in the printed original sources that it is impossible to do *any* historical investigation." But here the professor has in mind, perhaps, some large and ambitious project, which would involve almost a complete set, let us say, of the English, French, or United States Government publications, or complete sets of our Colonial records, or the complete writings of several American statesmen, or a file of a newspaper. It is true that few college libraries have such blocks of original material. But it is a great mistake to suppose that *no* historical investigation can be undertaken because of the lack of large blocks of printed sources. What then can be done?

There are few colleges that are not surrounded by original sources of history of one kind or another. The first thing to do is to make a survey. A college must be located at some particular geographical point



and hence it is in some state, county, township, parish, district, or otherwise named governmental unit. Since most of these civil units are required by law to keep records, colleges located within a few hours' ride of the capital of the state have access to legislative, executive, and judicial records; to laws, legislative journals, reports of executive officers and judicial decisions; to land, educational, and other public records both printed and manuscripts. Counties have records—those of the civil, criminal, and probate courts—no doubt our greatest unworked block of original sources for the study of American institutional, economic, and social history. In the smaller subdivisions there are records having to do with the public schools. There are also semi-public records, those particularly of religious denominations, in the possession of the central and local church officials, secretaries, and clerks. In fact, any institution or corporation may have some records available for study, such as colleges and academies, business concerns, insurance and railroad companies, banking institutions, etc. Then there are the family papers, letters, diaries, files of newspapers perhaps, and similar data in private hands. All this material suggests innumerable fields of research, based on general surveys of particular geographical areas like a state, county, or town, or particular studies of individual topics of a local character, such as the history of transportation, religion, education, banking, or of a particular industry, such as agriculture, mining, manufacturing, or some subdivision of these industries.

The average professor in a small college would have to start in a very simple way, assuming first that he is either anxious to do something himself, or is eager to direct a few students in some historical investigation. Printed materials are easier to use than manuscript materials. Much could be done if only a small block of printed material was available, such as a partial or complete file of a state or county newspaper; a set of the laws of the state passed since its organization; or a partial set of the congressional series—the Congressional Record, journals of Congress, or the Senate or House documents or reports.

Many topics need to be investigated in the history of state legislation, especially those of an economic and social character; e. g., transportation, state regulation of industry or corporations, educational and charitable legislation. From local newspapers something can be learned of the history of public sentiment towards the laws or their enforcement. If then one could extend his research to the state and local court records, the problem of the enforcement of laws could be studied.

It ought to be possible for many colleges to obtain, through their senators or congressmen, the congressional set of recent Congresses perhaps back to 1914 or earlier. Biographical studies could be made of the legislative career of senators and representatives from the state in which the college is located. One could also investigate the attitude of the Congress-

sional delegation towards public policies; e. g., tariff, taxation, etc. One might start with the history of his own college, or assign as a topic to a student the career of some local celebrity, an industrial leader, perhaps, or the history of some local institution or industry. In the South there is great opportunity to study the effect of the emancipation of the negro slave; to set forth the economic and social changes which have developed since reconstruction, such as a study of the tenant farmer; the standard of living or educational progress.

The great point is to do *something*, to make a start, and then to make the study public in some way; to get it printed if possible, in a county or other newspaper, or in the proceedings of some historical society. If this last agency is not available, effort should be made to organize one. In most localities there are local antiquarians, genealogical enthusiasts, or others interested in history. If the study cannot be printed, it might be read before some group—a woman's club, the D. A. R., Board of Trade, or some other group of persons.

Historical research would increase if professors in small colleges realized that one of the best ways to preferment is through published research. When the authorities in the larger universities, and now more and more in the smaller institutions, look over the field of possible candidates to replace the older and experienced men, they look for the "live wires" in the profession. They endeavor to locate the "self-starters." The first question asked is, what has this candidate done, or, what is he doing? If he is doing nothing more than teaching in a routine way, it means, from the standpoint of the more progressive institutions, that he is a "tail-ender" in the race for preferment. But if he proves that he is imbued with the spirit of research and produces some worth while piece of historical writing, then he puts himself "on the map."

The American Historical Association held a conference on Research in the Colleges at its recent meeting at Rochester. As a result it is likely that more emphasis will be placed in the future on research as a requirement for election and promotion to good positions. Finally, it may be said that the introduction of the practice of research into the colleges would not only be a great step forward from a purely educational standpoint, but it would help in locating the talent which the larger universities are trying so hard to find. It would help solve a pressing problem, that of finding capable men to carry on the productive work of the present generation of American historical scholars.

#### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DOCTORS OF PHILOSOPHY Dear Sir:

The Committee on Preparing a Programme for Research and Publication of the American Historical Association wishes to obtain information on the question, "Why graduate work in history leads to so little productive research on the part of holders of Ph.D. degrees." You will confer a great favor by replying to the enclosed questionnaire (omitting your signature if you wish), giving your frank and full opinion on the question asked. Please send replies as quickly as possible to Prof. M. W. Jernegan, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

1. What in your opinion is the obligation or duty of a Doctor of Philosophy in History to teaching on the one hand and research on the other?
2. What is the attitude of the President of the institution where you now hold a position toward research as compared with teaching?
3. Is the desire to do research work generally lacking, and, if so, for what reasons?
4. Is the failure to "produce" due to factors that prevent or greatly hinder the desire from being carried out? e. g.:
  - a. Teaching load, number of hours, and different courses per week.
  - b. Relation of salary to cost of and time needed for research; as affected by outside work—pleasure, standard of living.
5. Does your college library or any other depository of

historical material in your immediate vicinity contain sufficient materials for a line of research that could be pursued with profit?

6. Is it true that research is hindered or delayed because of the belief that only a large and important subject is worth undertaking?
7. Is it true that the difficulty of defraying the cost of publication or finding a suitable medium are serious influences which hinder research?
8. Would you be likely to produce a particular piece of work if you were assured of a definite grant sufficient to cover part of the expenses of research and publication?
9. Why do so many students make a substantial start in graduate work but fail to take the final degree?
10. Will you add any other reason that you think of that will help explain why there is no more productive research on the part of holders of the Ph.D. degrees?

## Slavery in the Territories under the Compromise of 1850

BY ESTHER E. SHARPE, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, IOWA CITY, IOWA

American historians, in general, who have expressed themselves definitely on the Compromise of 1850, have regarded it either as an expression of the doctrine of "squatter sovereignty," or as a judicial settlement of the slavery question. An examination of such sources as the proceedings and debates of Congress, the statutes of the United States, the statutes of the territories of Utah and New Mexico, the decisions of the federal courts, the decisions of the territorial courts of Utah and New Mexico, the writings of prominent statesmen, and the magazines and newspapers of the period, 1849-1857, forces the conclusion that the territorial acts of 1850 left the status of slavery in Utah and New Mexico during the territorial period to be determined by the Supreme Court of the United States. The courts were given the power to decide questions regarding property rights in slaves, writs of *habeas corpus*, titles to slaves, and the constitutionality of the Mexican laws, which were in force over Utah and New Mexico at the time of their transfer to the United States.

From the annexation of Utah and New Mexico until the enactment of the Compromise of 1850, attempts were made at a satisfactory adjustment. Five groups of opinion were found in Congress. The first group, composed of anti-slavery men, such as John P. Hale of New Hampshire, William H. Seward of New York, and Salmon P. Chase of Ohio, believed that Congress should prohibit slavery in the federal territories; the second, including principally the followers of Senator John C. Calhoun, demanded a recognition of the rights of slave property in the territories. Still others advocated the extension of the Missouri Compromise line to the Pacific Ocean; whereas, a fourth group recommended "squatter sovereignty." Others endorsed the proposal that the status of slavery be left to the Supreme Court. Such a solution was supported by the Select Committee of the thirtieth Congress<sup>1</sup> appointed to propose some settlement for the problem of slavery. Yet no legislation regarding the status of slavery in the federal

territories of Utah and New Mexico was passed by Congress until September 9, 1850.

Senator Henry Clay's resolutions "to settle and adjust amicably all existing questions of controversy between them [the North and the South], arising out of the institution of slavery, upon a fair, equitable, and just basis...."<sup>2</sup> were attacked by both the North and the South. According to his proposition,<sup>3</sup> the legislatures of Utah and New Mexico, respectively, were prohibited from passing any laws with respect to slavery.<sup>4</sup> He declared that all laws of the United States, "which are not locally inapplicable shall have the same force and effect within the said Territory of Utah [or New Mexico] as elsewhere within the United States."<sup>5</sup> Amendments were proposed, in order to carry out one or another of the five solutions. The North fought for a definite prohibition of slavery in the Mexican cession, while the South attempted to introduce slavery by the same means. The squatter sovereignty advocates urged the passage of amendments to carry out their theory. Even the parallel of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes was suggested as the southern boundary of Utah.

The Utah and New Mexico territorial acts contained substantially the same provisions with respect to slavery. Both declared that "when admitted as a State, the said Territory....shall be received into the Union, with or without slavery, as their Constitution may prescribe at the time of their admission."<sup>6</sup> This merely restated the principle that the people of a territory, when framing a state constitution, might admit or exclude slavery. No laws disapproved by Congress could be enforced.<sup>7</sup> It was provided that appeals from the final decisions of said territorial Supreme Court could be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States, "where the value of the property or the amount in controversy....shall exceed one thousand dollars; except only that in all cases involving title to slaves, the said writs of error or appeal shall be decided by the Supreme Court without regard to the value of the matter....and ex-

cept also that a writ of error or appeal shall be allowed to the Supreme Court of the United States.... upon any writ of habeas corpus involving the question of personal freedom...."<sup>8</sup> Thus, judicial settlement was enacted as the cornerstone of the territorial act.

The Compromise of 1850 passed Congress because it was the only common platform on which all contending parties could stand. This settlement was the second or third choice of prominent Southerners, such as Henry S. Foote and Jefferson Davis. Lewis Cass favored judicial review in certain contingencies. Since attempts to come to some agreement in the two preceding sessions of Congress had failed, New Mexico and Utah petitioned Congress for the establishment of some form of civil government. Many business men in the North, who were not willing to have the conflict continue over merely the "status of negroes," advocated peace.<sup>9</sup> Then, too, judicial settlement was decided upon, because members of both sections hoped that the ultimate outcome would favor their contention. James Buchanan wrote:

"The North support the Bill [Compromise], because they are convinced that the Mexican Constitution and laws abolishing slavery remain in force....

"On the other hand, you and other Southern gentlemen support the Bill, because you are convinced that the Constitution of the United States has abolished the Mexican Constitution and laws, and that you can take your slaves to the territories and hold them there....until State Governments shall be formed...."<sup>13</sup>

Statesmen in Congress did not agree as to the meaning of the Compromise of 1850. There is no evidence available as to how Senators Calhoun, Clay, or Daniel Webster interpreted the settlement. Senators John Bell, Cass, Salmon P. Chase, Stephen A. Douglas,<sup>11</sup> Robert M. T. Hunter, Isaac P. Walker, and Representative Harry Hibbard declared that the Compromise of 1850 left the question of slavery in the federal territories to the Supreme Court.<sup>12</sup> To Senators Morris Norris, Jr., Daniel S. Dickinson, and James C. Allen of Illinois, the Compromise meant squatter sovereignty for the inhabitants of New Mexico and Utah during the territorial period.<sup>13</sup> Senators William C. Dawson, Aaron Harlan, Davis Carpenter, E. M. Chamberlain, and Robert Toombs believed that the right of popular sovereignty could be exercised by the people only when they formed a state constitution and applied for admission as a State into the Union.<sup>14</sup> Other members of Congress, notably Senators Thomas H. Benton, Augustus C. Dodge, William H. Seward, and Representatives Howell Cobb, Alexander H. Stephens, and George W. Julian, made only indefinite statements regarding the Compromise.

Outside of Congress disagreement was likewise found. Henry Ward Beecher, Thurlow Weed, Samuel Bowles, and Martin Van Buren made no statements regarding the meaning of the Compromise, whereas the writings of Samuel J. May, Charles Sumner, William Lloyd Garrison, and Rufus Choate

were too indefinite for classification. According to ex-Senator John M. Clayton, Philip Philips of Alabama, Horace Greeley, Leander M. Cox, James Buchanan, John C. Breckenridge, and Galusha A. Grow, the Compromise followed the principle of judicial review.<sup>15</sup>

Upon the passage of the Compromise of 1850, many people contented themselves with the belief that at last the question of slavery in the territories had been removed from further connection with politics. They held that there was no federal territory where the status of slavery had not been fixed by some congressional enactment. But within less than four years after the Compromise had become a law, the organization of territorial governments for the area of Nebraska opened up the controversy once more.

In the debates over the territorial organization of Nebraska, the chief points dealt with the relationship of the Compromise of 1850 to the Compromise of 1820. The North maintained the lack of relationship between the two compromises and contended that the acts of 1850 referred only to Utah and New Mexico. On the other hand, the South claimed a right to settle in all the federal territories with slave property protected by the Constitution; and that the question of slavery should be decided only when state constitutions preparatory to statehood were adopted. By many Southern Senators and Representatives it was conceded that during the territorial period all questions with respect to slavery should be decided by the Supreme Court.

The Kansas-Nebraska territorial act,<sup>16</sup> when passed, contained practically the same provisions, with respect to the status of slavery, as those of the New Mexico and Utah acts. In other words, the principle of judicial review was applied. A comparison of the sections providing for the jurisdiction of the courts in all four territories shows that in each instance "all cases involving titles to slaves" should be "allowed and decided by the Supreme Court, without regard to the value of the matter, property, or title in controversy"; and also that writs of error should be allowed to the Supreme Court "upon any writ of habeas corpus involving the question of personal freedom."<sup>17</sup> Further regulations concerning slavery in Kansas and Nebraska dealt with minor points.

Up to the time of the handing down of the Dred Scott decision, the southern theory that the slave-owners had an equal right with the North to take their property to the territories had not received judicial sanction. However, the Court used a different line of reasoning than that of the Calhoun group. This decision was the outcome of the struggle over slavery in the territories, although letters, which were written by justices of the Supreme Court to President Buchanan, might indicate that this finding was the result of a pro-slavery conspiracy. So long as the slave-owners were upheld in their contention by the Court's decision, the Mexican laws which prohibited slavery became null and void, and neither



the territorial legislatures nor Congress could exclude slavery from the territories.<sup>18</sup>

An attempt has been made to determine whether Utah and New Mexico were free soil, or were under popular sovereignty from 1850 to 1854, from 1854 to 1857, and from 1857 to 1865.<sup>19</sup> In the judgment of the writer, New Mexico was open to slavery from 1850 to 1854 and from 1854 to 1857, but was in reality free soil. According to the Census of the United States, no slaves existed in New Mexico.<sup>20</sup> The Mexican courts did not hand down any decisions on the slavery question, nor did the territorial legislatures pass any laws declaring whether or not slavery could exist. From March 6, 1857, to June 19, 1862, as a result of the Dred Scott decision, New Mexico was slave soil, in that slavery could not be prohibited. In 1860 no slaves lived in New Mexico.<sup>21</sup> However, a law was passed "to provide for the protection of property in slaves in that territory."<sup>22</sup> This was, no doubt, due to the fact that "New Mexico was more or less of a thorn in the flesh of northern politicians...." and this probably "had some reflex influence....on the politicians, if not on the people, and a kind of mild southern partisanship was developed."<sup>23</sup> On June 19, 1862, slavery was excluded by act of Congress<sup>24</sup> from New Mexico, as well as from all the territories of the United States. Then, in 1865, the thirteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was adopted.

In Utah, practically the same is true as for New Mexico. From 1850 to 1857, no decisions were handed down by the Supreme Court of Utah dealing with the subject of slavery, nor were any laws passed by the territorial legislatures concerning the question. No slaves lived in Utah in 1850,<sup>25</sup> although in 1860 twenty-nine slaves were listed in the population.<sup>26</sup> Slavery was likewise abolished in Utah on June 19, 1862.

Little note seems to have been taken with respect to the provisions in the clauses of the New Mexico and Utah acts which relate to slavery. No decisions were handed down by the Courts with respect to the legality of slavery in the federal territories until 1857 and the Dred Scott decision originated outside of New Mexico and Utah. Soon after the Court's decision came the Civil War and the emancipation of all slaves. Perhaps Douglas' contentions that the Compromise of 1850 and the Kansas-Nebraska acts were victories for the theory of popular sovereignty prevented many investigations of the provisions of the Compromise. However, historians of the future will need to take into account the provisions of the Compromise of 1850, which deal with the power of the Courts over the question of slavery in the federal territories of Utah and New Mexico, and it will be necessary for textbooks in American history to treat of this subject in accordance with the principles of judicial review.

## Notes

<sup>1</sup> Met in Washington, 1847-1849.

<sup>2</sup> "Congr. Gl., 1st sess., 31st Congr.," part 1, p. 91.

<sup>3</sup> "Reports of Committees, 1st sess., 31st Congr.," Rep. Com., 123.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 14, 19-20.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 18, 23.

<sup>6</sup> "U. S. Statutes at Large," Vol. IX, pp. 447, 454.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, Vol. IX, pp. 449, 456.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, Vol. IX, pp. 450, 457.

<sup>9</sup> Greeley, Horace, "The American Conflict," Vol. I, p. 210.

<sup>10</sup> Letter written to Senator Foote on May 31, 1850. Buchanan, James, "Works," John Bassett Moore, ed., Vol. VIII, p. 386.

<sup>11</sup> Although Stephen A. Douglas repeatedly hailed the Compromise of 1850 as a victory for the principle of popular sovereignty, he stated, on January 4, 1854, that according to the Compromise of 1850, "all questions of personal freedom" were referred to the decision of the courts. Sheahan, J. W., "The Life of Stephen A. Douglas," p. 189.

<sup>12</sup> "Congr. Gl., 1st sess., 33d Congr., App.," pp. 134, 224, 273, 280, 293, 938 and Sheahan, *op. cit.*, pp. 169, 189, 225.

<sup>13</sup> "Congr. Gl., 1st sess., 33d Congr., App.," pp. 254-255, 305, and Dickinson, Daniel S., "Speeches, Correspondence, etc.," John R. Dickinson, ed., Vol. I, pp. 351, 491.

<sup>14</sup> "Congr. Gl., 1st sess., 33d Congr., App.," pp. 304, 345, 347, 602, 1005, and Phillips, Ulrich Bonnell, ed., "The Correspondence of Robert Toombs, Alexander H. Stephens and Howell Cobb," The American Historical Association, "Annual Report for 1911," p. 228.

<sup>15</sup> "Congr. Globe, 1st sess., 33d Congr., App.," pp. 391, 438, 443, 531, 700, 974, *New York Weekly Tribune* for February 19, 1852, p. 4, and Buchanan, *op. cit.*, Vol. VIII, p. 386.

<sup>16</sup> "U. S. Statutes at Large," Vol. X, pp. 277-290.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, Vol. IX, pp. 450-455-456; Vol. X, pp. 280, 286-287.

<sup>18</sup> Allowance needs to be made, of course, for Douglas' contention in the Freeport debate with Lincoln.

<sup>19</sup> Slavery was abolished throughout the United States in 1865.

<sup>20</sup> "U. S. Census for 1850," pp. 993, 998.

<sup>21</sup> "U. S. Census for 1860," pp. 586-587.

<sup>22</sup> Bancroft, H. H., "History of Arizona and New Mexico," pp. 682-683.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 682-683.

<sup>24</sup> "U. S. Statutes at Large," Vol. XII, p. 432.

<sup>25</sup> "U. S. Census for 1850," pp. 993, 998.

<sup>26</sup> "U. S. Census for 1860," pp. 574-575.

"Of all the many revolutions that have broken out in Europe since the days of the Armistice, few have been so striking or raised so many points of discussion as the modernization of Turkey....Turkey has broken away so drastically and with such rapidity from the past that many are left wondering if an edifice of State erected under such conditions can be anything but ephemeral....the Turkish Nationalist movement reflects the present-day tendency to substitute for Parliamentarism a form of government whose appeal lies in the vigorous and good governance of one man or an oligarchy with the one distinction that, whereas the Dictators of Spain and Italy have not been compelled to leave their Parliaments with even the semblance of power, the Ghazi has....been obliged to give his Grand National Assembly at least a nominal hold on executive and legislative power," says Dudley Heathcote, writing on "Mustapha Kemal and the New Turkey" in the January *Fortnightly Review*.

# History and Other Social Studies in the Schools

REPORT OF A COMMITTEE, SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, APPROVED, DECEMBER, 1926

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*To the Council of the American Historical Association:*

Your Committee on History and the other Social Studies in the schools respectfully submits the following report, which is in three parts. The introduction, containing a general statement of the situation in the schools, will help to explain the need for thorough going study of the social subjects from the primary grades through the junior college. The second part contains a detailed plan for a proposed study to be conducted on a co-operative basis over a period of five years. The third part contains the report of the chairman on the activities of the committee, and a financial statement covering the expenditures of the subvention given the American Historical Association by the Commonwealth Fund for the work of this Committee. It also contains a summary of the bibliographies compiled; lists of organizations concerned with social education; lists of projects now under way which may contribute to phases of the general problem; findings of questionnaire inquiries, and an invoice of books, materials and supplies on hand at the conclusion of the work.

## PRESENT PROBLEM OF THE SCHOOLS

Since the opening of the present century, when your Committee of Seven made its report for the secondary schools and your Committee of Eight made its equally memorable report for the elementary schools, conditions in the schools have undergone a number of important changes. To some extent these changes have sprung from the natural development of the schools themselves. To a larger extent, they reflect the many and complex forces which are now operating in our society. A few of these tendencies may be singled out for attention here.

*Increased social maturity of school children.*—The shift of population from rural to urban centers, a tendency in 1900, has become a fact now. The majority of the population by actual statistics now lives in cities. The effect of this shift on social education is, however, inadequately indicated by population statistics. Due to the development of the automobile, the cinema, and the radio, the events of urban society are quickly communicated to rural communities. These same developments also facilitate the acquisition of rural experience by city-dwellers. The increase in labor-saving devices, the changed status of women, the multiplication of activities outside the home, have all offered new roads to social experience. Meanwhile the family and church have both lost some of their former importance as contributory educative agencies. The growth and expansion of organiza-

tions for youth and the development of playgrounds under public auspices have in some measure made up for the loss. The burden of the schools, however, has become correspondingly heavier. It is quite clear that the social maturity of the present day school children is far in advance of their physical and mental development. This wider social experience is a new and important problem of the schools today.

*Increase in school attendance.*—The period of school attendance has been growing at a rate scarcely anticipated then and not fully recognized even now. It was long a commonplace to speak of our citizens as equipped with an average education of the sixth grade. That observation was voiced as late as 1919 at the end of the World War. Its truth, however, at that date may be questioned. Statistics compiled by the Bureau of Education indicate that the proportion of school population actually attending the public schools had risen from 66 per cent. in 1918 to 82 per cent. in 1922. In the fifteen years preceding 1924 enrollment in the public high schools had increased over 288 per cent. A study of fifteen cities during the year 1923-24 showed an average of about 40 per cent. of the population of high school age enrolled in the public high schools. Kansas City had nearly 60 per cent. of its population of that age in the high schools, while Lincoln, Nebraska, and Berkeley, California, had more than 78 per cent. of that age in such schools. The statistician of one large western school system has estimated that nearly 40 per cent. of the pupils who entered the elementary grades twelve years ago graduated from the high schools of that city last year. Every effort to explain such figures as local exceptions or as a passing phenomenon meet with difficulty. The tendency is becoming fixed by laws. The state of Ohio, for example, has a law requiring school attendance virtually up to the age of eighteen. Other communities have similar laws. The movement to compel school attendance up to that age has the united support of humanitarian, labor, and business organizations. Any attempt to state the average school education today would have to place the figure somewhere in the tenth grade, and it seems quite possible that the next generation will have an average school education equivalent to the twelfth grade. In other words, the secondary school has become, like the elementary school, a cross-section of our society. It is no longer a preparatory institution for those seeking professional careers. The fact that the secondary school must now deal with all, irrespective of any particular career, is another important problem of the schools.



*Changes in school administration.*—School administration has undergone, and is undergoing, important changes. The great increase in numbers of students has raised a host of problems. A secondary school with an enrollment of several hundred students was a large school in 1900. High schools with an enrollment of several thousand students are not uncommon now. New administrative units have developed to relieve the high schools. Junior high schools carrying the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades have been devised to relieve both elementary and high schools. At the other end of the secondary school a new unit, the junior college, has appeared. In its service to college preparation and vocational training, the junior college is in somewhat the same position as were the high schools in 1899. This multiplication of administrative units, however, has failed to prevent the increase in size of classes. Reluctance on the part of taxpayers to contribute increased funds proportional to the increase in enrollment has aggravated the situation in the secondary field. Consequently, the mere physical strain of the increased enrollment is another problem of the schools affecting curriculum and classroom methods as well as school administration.

While the examples cited to illustrate these changes have been drawn from the secondary school field, the elementary grades are almost as deeply affected. The problems raised by these changes involve the whole school system from the elementary grades through the junior college.

#### THE EFFECT OF THESE DEVELOPMENTS UPON CURRICULUM AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

Obviously the curriculum and methods of instruction planned for the self-selected few seeking culture or preparation for learned careers are not suited to the needs of mass education on the present scale. The reluctance of taxpayers alone would be sufficient to prevent any extended attempt to provide separate treatment for different groups. The tendency toward administrative efficiency itself would oppose too much differential treatment. A host of specialized schools sufficient to provide separately for the different needs of different groups is therefore practically impossible. Even the free elective system in the selection of subjects has had to be restricted through sheer physical necessity, if for no other reason. Crowded classrooms and still more crowded school buildings have become the accepted condition in secondary education. The efforts of school authorities, therefore, have been directed toward providing methods of instruction and a curriculum to meet this situation. It is only natural that they should seek a curriculum for common needs and methods of instruction for the mass of students.

#### PRESENT RESOURCES WITH WHICH TO MEET THESE PROBLEMS

*Improved Organization.*—The organization of public school authorities has undergone vast improvement during the past generation. Within the National Education Association a number of groups

have been formed for the discussion and study of common problems. The divisions of Superintendence, of High School Principals, and the National Society for the Study of Education have all been especially active in studying the problems of the secondary schools. Annual and semi-annual meetings have been supplemented by committee work in the intervals. The results of committee study are now systematically published in yearbooks and distributed to all members. The number of periodicals directly serving educational authorities has greatly increased. In addition, there has developed what may almost be called a system of lectures and demonstrations by means of which local groups, city or state, seek to keep in touch with current advances in educational thought and method. As a result, though the number of school administrators and teachers is much greater than it was in 1899, they actually are in closer touch with each other and more ready to respond to improvements in their work than ever before.

*Educational research.*—Educational research was almost non-existent a generation ago. It is now one of the largest, most active and best financed fields of study in this country. There are a number of endowed centers well provided with libraries and experimental resources. Nearly every state university has a department, school, or college of education in which more or less graduate work is carried on in this field. Normal schools, now become teachers' colleges, are seeking to add investigation to their former function of teacher training. In addition to these resources, the National Education Association has established a central bureau of research and has fostered a number of research projects by committees. Great assistance has been rendered by some of the philanthropic foundations in furnishing the necessary funds for important projects. Notable advance has been made in many problems of school administration, methods of instruction, tests and measurement of mental abilities, treatment of individual differences and vocational guidance. In recent years increased attention has been devoted to the problem of curriculum construction. As a result, there are available now not only a great mass of data and more refined techniques, but also a group of trained workers whose aid may be profitably enlisted in the solution of educational problems.

#### PROGRESS TOWARD SOLUTION OF THE SCHOOL PROBLEM

The recognition of the changing order as affecting the schools naturally dawned first upon the school administrators who had to grapple directly with the problem of ever increasing numbers. The machinery of educational research was set in motion for their assistance. The creation and spread of the junior high school and the junior college movements were early outcomes of this effort. The need of curriculum reorganization, however, soon became clear. As early as 1918 the Committee on Reorganization of the Secondary Schools laid down its statement of guiding principles. It set forth as the main objectives of secondary education seven aims:

HEALTH VOCATION ETHICAL CHARACTER  
 COMMAND OF FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES CITIZENSHIP  
 WORTHY HOME MEMBERSHIP WORTHY USE OF LEISURE

The significant character of this statement will be more fully appreciated when it is recalled that former principles of curriculum determination rested on the basis of subjects, not objectives. This statement of aims received immediate attention. There was some disposition to criticize the wording of these aims; some disposition to divide some of them, making the list ten, eleven, or even twelve; but the fundamental principle of recognizing common and definite aims for the curriculum of the secondary schools won practically unanimous support from educational leaders. It is not only accepted as the basis for the reconstruction of the curriculum of the secondary schools, but for that of the whole public school program as well.

The implication of these principles, that the social studies must constitute the heart of the curriculum, was taken as a slogan by the National Association of High School Principals in 1918 and has been consistently adhered to. This point of view has been repeated by the Department of Superintendence and may be regarded as that of the National Education Association.

The translation of these guiding principles into actual curriculum content has been necessarily slow work. The difficulties of the task are well illustrated by some of the early state courses of study for the high schools. Curriculum construction on such a basis has been undertaken by individuals, by city school systems and by state departments of education, with resulting duplication of effort and expense. In the latter cases, committees of teachers, with more or less assistance from educational experts, have undertaken the practical work. The examples of Detroit, Denver, and, at present, St. Louis, illustrate the effort by cities; those of Pennsylvania, Maryland, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Minnesota, by states.

#### WHY SUCCESS HAS NOT BEEN ATTAINED THUS FAR

This work of practical reorganization of the curriculum has encountered great difficulties, especially in the social studies. Experienced classroom teachers, accustomed to spending their energy in transforming accepted material for student consumption, are out of touch with progress in subject matter and lack the range of knowledge adequately to determine relative values. Educational experts in most cases find themselves handicapped by lack of subject-matter training. Both teachers and experts, where they have made a serious effort to solve the problem of the social studies, have found themselves appalled by the wide range of material from which to select and the somewhat intangible values involved. Mathematics and foreign languages involved results which could be measured. The aid of the specialist in those fields was recognized at the outset, and the reorganization of the curriculum in those fields has been successfully undertaken. In the case of the social studies, of daily and common concern, and related to, and affected by, our whole complex modern society, there were many

who felt that their reorganization might be safely undertaken without the help of the specialists. That position is not tenable today. Many school administrators and many educational experts have consistently taken the attitude that the reorganization of subject-matter content must in all cases be accomplished by the specialists in those fields. This view prevails generally now. Educational administrators and experts in educational research at present agree that, in view of the importance, magnitude and difficulty of the social studies, effective reorganization of that portion of the curriculum can be accomplished only with the aid of a co-operative nation-wide study which shall make available the whole resources of all the specialties in that group. They view the social studies in the schools as a unit, to which history, political science, economics, sociology and geography all contribute.

#### THE WORK OF SUBJECT-MATTER ORGANIZATIONS UP TO THE PRESENT

It cannot be said that the subject-matter specialists have been entirely unaware of the need for change, or that they have been unwilling to help in the solution of the problem. The urge to do so probably arose more from a recognition of the increasing complexity of national and international affairs than from any clear understanding of the every day problem of the schools. The old curriculum was felt to be inadequate to equip a responsible electorate against the throng of tangled international and national problems which were crowding in upon us. The World War and its liquidation, the League of Nations, the Dawes plan, the World Court, not to mention the more immediate and no less insistent problems of war and reconstruction at home, seemed to call for more direct preparation even in the high schools. Certainly the need of such preparation is clearly evident and generally acknowledged.

The American Historical Association has appointed successive committees to study the needs of the schools. Two of these committees, the Committee of Five and the Second Committee of Eight, made specific recommendations which have been printed. Other social science organizations, acting independently, have likewise made some study of the problem. The American Political Science Association, the American Economics Association, the American Sociological Association and the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business have had reports from their own committees on desirable programs of social study in the schools. Meanwhile the National Education Association has had reports from several of its committees recommending programs in social studies for the whole or part of the secondary school system.

The practical effect of these separate and somewhat different recommendations appeared in startling fashion in the report of the History Inquiry published in 1924. This Inquiry found school programs following nearly every one of these reports. It found others selecting courses from several of the reports, and still others apparently following none of these

reports. It found more than twenty-four different subjects listed in the social studies offerings for the grades IX to XII, inclusive. A closer study of the content of courses bearing the same name revealed almost as much variety within those courses. This was especially true of the twelfth grade course which, under the name "Problems of Democracy," was either a course in Government, or Economics, or Sociology, or recent American History, or almost any conceivable combination of these elements. The ninth grade course, frequently entitled "Community Civics," offered almost as much variety. The courses in history, presumably more nearly standardized, proved upon inspection to present almost as much difference. Modern History offered the greatest range of difference. Under the circumstances, the History Inquiry is entitled to considerable sympathy for its selection of the term "chaos" as the most adequate description of the situation. That the state of affairs has not been greatly altered is indicated by the fact that there are now over four hundred textbooks in this field on the active market. In many instances they reflect and accentuate the most extreme divergencies noted by the History Inquiry.

Nor is this the worst result of divided counsel. Lay organizations not normally concerned with education, and some of them distinctly propagandist in their purposes, have devoted increasing attention to the social studies in the school. A casual exploratory survey shows nearly seven hundred such organizations with more or less well-defined interest in social education. Some of these have long concerned themselves with the schools. Most of them, however, developed their direct interest in school instruction during the war, when the importance of the schools was revealed to them. Many of these have continued their interest, and still other organizations have become interested since that time. Anxious to serve the particular cause for which they are striving, they have become insistent that some matters should be, or others should not be, included in the curriculum. Many of their objects are highly laudable, while some are not. Unfortunately, however, these organizations have no responsibility for the teaching in the schools, and they have no concern for the ultimate consequences of the subject matter they wish included or excluded. Their direct interference in the schools has been made easy by the lack of any definite standard to which school authorities might turn for guidance or support. Their interest is, and will continue to be, most active in the field of the social studies, for the teaching of mathematics, physics, or language hardly contributes to the patterns they wish to stamp on the next generation.

The undesirability of such a situation from the point of view of the best interests of teachers or administrators, or the supporters of free schools, needs no discussion. A consideration of the removable factors among the causes which led to it would be more profitable. The most obvious of these is clearly the fact that at least five different national organizations of reputable standing undertook separately to formulate complete programs of social

studies. Perhaps the most important is the fact that in not one instance was a program formulated upon a careful study of all the elements involved in such a program. This statement is made with due regard to the earnest work of many individuals who participated in these reports and to the equally earnest desires of all the committees which made the reports. None of the committees had either the time or the means with which to carry out such a study.

#### THE NEED FOR A CO-OPERATIVE STUDY OF THE SOCIAL SUBJECTS

From the standpoint of the schools, training for effective social membership is the core of the curriculum, the most important single element. By definition, the various social subjects have important contributions to make to this common problem. The purpose of the schools will be inadequately served if those subjects are not treated in proper relation to each other.

A program which will stand the test of school routine and yield the results which the present condition of society requires can only come from a cordial co-operation of all competent to assist in the problem. Success can result only from extensive research carried on by competent scholars in all fields of social study. Likewise, some consensus of opinion must be reached on values in question.

A thorough study of the problem will entail an expenditure of money which should be sought from disinterested individuals and foundations. It is certain that any disinterested donor would look with disfavor upon separate studies which would inevitably involve duplication. Practical considerations would demand a centralized organization under responsible auspices.

A study such as your Committee proposes, and here outlines, will require at least five years of close application; it will involve the drafting of many scholars for longer or shorter intervals; it will involve also considerable expense for the essential administration and conduct of necessary experimental studies or investigations. With all this effort, there is no assurance that all phases of the problem will be solved; it is even more certain that one of the chief results will be to disclose a whole host of detailed problems which will require later solution. Nevertheless, the attempt to bring about even partial order seems worth making.

There are, of course, certain apparent difficulties in the situation. The reorganization of the secondary school curriculum in terms of its mass needs will not be accepted readily by those who believe that the chief duty of educational institutions is to cultivate the best. They may even fear that in accepting the proposed principles or reorganization, they will become party to complete disregard of special opportunities for those with native talents. Such a danger might, indeed, exist, were it not for the promising development in the study of individual differences and of programs to care for the best as well as for the less able. The need of such differential treatment



is quite as clearly recognized and accepted by educators as is the doctrine that the secondary school must serve the general needs of society.

There will also arise the fear in the subject-matter groups concerned that specialists may be endangering the integrity of their subjects by submitting them to such treatment as is implied in the acceptance of the major objectives of the reorganization of secondary schools. Such a possibility undoubtedly exists, as is indicated by the approach which one or two prominent educational experts have already made to the social studies. The probability, however, must be faced that in any event considerable modification of the present social studies program will occur. Such an outcome, provided it is the result of adequate investigation and thought, is not to be feared nearly so much as the results that will ensue if we leave the problem to the untrained, or to the seven hundred private organizations. Something will be done, for the situation will not stand still. The question really is, shall what is done be guided by those qualified to make the effort most thoughtfully and objectively?

Other practical difficulties present themselves. It is clear that it will be no light task to marshal all available scholarly resources for such an investigation. The administrative machinery necessary for the effort in itself presents a real problem. The financial assistance required will be such as none of the learned associations in the field now possesses.

There are, however, other considerations which deserve attention. If the secondary school becomes what figures seem to show it is fast becoming, a cross-section of our society, the opportunity to organize a system of training for effective membership in society would seem to be one which social philosophers have dreamed about since the days of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. If practically all except the mentally and physically unfit are to remain in school virtually to adult life, not only may leaders be trained, but, in some measure, the whole body politic. Whether one believes like some, that it would be possible by means of education to reshape a whole society in a few generations, or, like others, that society does not permanently or practically profit from education, this development would offer the opportunity to put both beliefs to the first real test they have ever had. There is here a challenge to the ideals and claims of all the social sciences. The first question is, not whether the way is open, but whether the leaders in the social sciences and in the educational profession see the opportunity and are equal to the task. The second is, whether the study can be adequately financed.

#### PROPOSED PLAN FOR A DETAILED STUDY OF HISTORY AND OTHER SOCIAL SCIENCES

The detailed plan for a thorough investigation of history and the other social studies which follows is based upon the following assumptions:

1. That the social studies, history, government, economics, sociology and perhaps geography contribute to one main function of the schools—education for effective social membership.

2. That the public school system now extends from pre-primary grades through the junior college.
3. That the emphasis of the proposed study should be placed upon an analysis of the social studies through the whole of the school system, rather than upon an analysis of a particular segment or level of instruction.
4. That five years is the shortest period in which a satisfactory study can be completed.

The first of these assumptions, that the social studies contribute to one main function of the schools—education for effective social membership—is now generally accepted. In a broad sense, the whole curriculum, even the natural sciences, contributes to this end. It is possible that some of the results now expected of the social subjects may be more fully gained from other subjects. This contingency should be kept constantly in mind as the study progresses. Likewise the phrase “education for effective social membership” is not to be interpreted too narrowly. It is commonly recognized that the social studies as now organized bear directly upon most of the other major objectives of public school education. While the emphasis of the following plan of study is placed upon those major objectives to which the social studies make the greatest contribution, it is not proposed to neglect the other services which those subjects may properly render.

The second assumption, that the public school system now extends from pre-primary grades through the junior college, may present some difficulty through the inclusion of both pre-primary and junior college units. The pre-primary school, still in an experimental state, may be important chiefly for the light which it may throw on the development of children before they enter the grades. The junior college, however, has apparently come to stay. It has been estimated that the number of separate junior colleges now in existence is beyond one hundred and fifty. Primarily a western development, it has already penetrated the older states and seems certain to become a national institution. The extent of the movement is not fully indicated by the number of separate junior colleges. State universities are recognizing the situation by organizing the first two years as a distinct unit. The junior college has now become the point at which general and some special types of education end, the point of dispersion into technical and professional schools on the one hand, into the world's activities on the other. A study which looks forward a generation must take this development into account.

The third assumption, that the chief emphasis in the proposed study should be placed upon a vertical treatment of the social studies through the whole school system, may be received with more hesitation. There will probably be little doubt that such treatment is theoretically desirable, but there may be fear that the inclusion of all grades from the first through the fourteenth will jeopardize the practical execution of the plan. It is quite possible that, as the work progresses, a choice must be made between complete vertical treatment and more extended work on various levels. The customary procedure in dealing with cur-

ricular problems has been by separate school units. Teachers, as a rule, work in certain school units, elementary, junior high, senior high, and junior college grades. The administrative authorities of these school units plan their own special curricula. Methods of instruction, teaching devices and supervision are usually treated in terms of these same school units. The result has been, too often, an attempt to provide for all possible needs of society in each unit without adequate regard either for the training that has preceded or that is to follow. Such treatment of curricula by separate units or by limited grade levels may be described as horizontal.

Even a hasty survey of existing programs reveals much needless repetition and many important omissions of material. Methods of instruction and teaching devices, though capable of great improvement, have suffered somewhat less under the horizontal treatment. In fact, the treatment of methods of instruction at the different grade levels has distinct advantages. Teachers, as they continue their work on those levels, become increasingly expert in meeting the pedagogical needs of the various grades. Progress in method may be counted upon. A national study continuing for only a few years, such as is here proposed, will serve chiefly as a clearing house for the best solutions of such problems as have thus far developed. The proposed study can be of great service in forwarding careful co-ordination of work in the different grades. This is true not merely because a study which emphasizes vertical treatment will afford practically the only opportunity for such treatment in a generation, but even more because the needs of the situation make such treatment imperative. Most of the educational values in the social subjects are the result of cumulative effort. The ideals, the attitudes, even the mechanical skills, can be imparted only by successive effort at different times, from different angles, and in various forms over a number of years. Without a careful study of the sequence of social instruction all the way through the public school system, such values are almost certain to be lost. The present futility of much of the instruction in this field is due to the absence of this sequential consideration. For this reason, the chief emphasis of the proposed study should be placed upon the vertical treatment of the social subjects.

The fourth assumption, that five years will be needed to carry out the proposed study successfully, is explained by the detailed plan which follows. In brief, most of the work involved will be of a research nature, or will consist of a careful adaptation of research to the needs of the schools. This will require a large number of detailed studies of at least the calibre of doctoral dissertations. Such studies must be carefully planned and competent workers must be found to carry them out. It is probable that all the essential problems will not be assigned until well into the second or even the third year of the proposed study. It will require at least two more years to collect and correlate the results. Were it not for the great amount of pertinent research recently accom-

plished, or now under way, in the field, even the five years suggested would be too short a time. As it is, there is reason to believe that a five-year program, carefully executed, will yield satisfactory results.

#### COLLECTION OF GENERAL STATISTICAL INFORMATION

In order to insure a firm foundation of fact, it will be necessary in the proposed study, as in previous subject-matter investigations, to collect data on existing conditions. This task should be neither as extensive nor as expensive as the corresponding work of other investigations because of the excellent work done by them. Both the Classical Investigation, which finished its work in 1924, and the Modern Foreign Language Investigation, which is completing its fact-finding at the end of 1926, have gathered general statistical information about the public school system. Both worked in co-operation with the United States Bureau of Education. Further information bearing more directly on the social studies appears in the History Inquiry of 1924. State and local school surveys published during the past few years or now in process will yield supplementary information. These and other sources of information should be utilized immediately and as fully as possible to secure the following classes of data:

1. The number, kinds, and distribution of schools.

The report of the Modern Foreign Language Investigation should yield the latest and best information on this item.

2. The number of students and their distribution by grades and courses.

The report of the Modern Foreign Language Investigation should yield the latest and best information on this item.

3. The trend of school attendance.

The United States census of 1920, the biennial bulletins of the Bureau of Education, the Reports of the Classical Investigation and of the Modern Foreign Language Investigation will furnish most of the data. This item will, however, require some attention from a statistical expert.

4. The number, kinds, and distribution by grades of social studies now offered.

The History Inquiry of 1924 and the supplementary correspondence of your committee for 1925 and 1926 may serve as a basis for further study. The report of the Modern Foreign Language Investigation will furnish specific time allotment. Supplementary questionnaire inquiries may be necessary for this item.

5. The number and distribution of teachers including portion of time devoted to social studies.

See next item.

6. The subject-combinations of teachers devoting part time to social studies.

These two items have recently received much attention from students of educational administration. Lists of recent doctoral and masters' dissertations should be scrutinized for material on these points; likewise, recent monographs on educational administration. Typical rather than complete information is desired. Some supplementary questionnaire inquiry may be needed.

In addition to the collection of the above statistics, the clerical staff of the proposed organization should begin immediately a complete list of studies and dis-



cussions which have appeared since 1899, when the bibliography for the Committee of Seven was compiled. Thousands of articles and books bearing directly on the teaching problems in this field have been published in this country alone. Many of these are brief and often of little practical consequence to the study, but much of this literature is important. While the evaluation of this literature must be left to more highly trained workers, the clerical staff may be expected to do the preliminary work.

7. The collection and classification of bibliography according to the needs of this study.

The bibliography of your planning Committee will serve as a starting point.

8. The collection of official syllabi and courses of study in use over the country.

The Bureau of Curriculum Research, Teachers' College, Columbia University, has the most complete list. The collection made by your Committee in drawing up the present plan will serve as a nucleus.

9. An inventory of the resources of various libraries for material on the social studies.

Fact-finding on matters relating specifically to later divisions of the proposed study and requiring more expert attention is allocated to those divisions. In all cases, before launching upon a fact-finding inquiry, it should be determined carefully whether complete or merely typical information is needed. The exercise of care in this particular may mean the saving of much time and money.

#### DETERMINATION OF SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

The determination of the specific objectives of the social studies and their relation to the major objectives of education is at once the most difficult and important task of the proposed study. The social studies have suffered more than other school subjects from vague and general statements of their aims. Much of the aimless wanderings, extravagant methods, and futile instruction so frequently charged to these subjects are due to this fact. The rising tide of secondary school enrollment tends to increase rather than to diminish the danger. A sharper definition of objectives seems the only safeguard against such wasteful performances. The difficulty of the task, unfortunately, cannot be minimized.

It will seem paradoxical to some to seek specific objectives for a subject like history, whose chief glory, presumably, lies in its very lack of any purpose except the general one of seeking truth in the past. The paradox is rather apparent than real. Even assuming that the true values of history lie in its systematic presentation as a whole, there is still room to specify those comprehensive values more exactly. But more than this, there is a crying need to make certain that the successive steps in any given course of study lead certainly to the desired goal. An excellent teacher with a small group of superior students might not need such assistance, but that condition, rare at best, is becoming still more rare. The average teacher under present conditions requires frequent guide-posts.

The difficulty, however, is common to all the social

studies. Their values are relatively intangible. The practically useful information acquired should be more definitely associated with the acquisition of points of view, desirable attitudes and ideals, new or deeper interests, and skill in handling social materials. We have no satisfactory measures of such values. Psychologists have but just begun to devise tests toward this end and it is unlikely that their results will be fully satisfactory at the completion of this study.

These difficulties, however, only serve to make the effort the more necessary, and any gain, however small, is certain to be important. The problem may be attacked in the following ways:

1. Analysis of the content of present courses of social study in order to find specific objectives which bear upon the major objectives of education.

Nearly every worker in the field of curriculum study has made some effort to do this, and the published studies should be examined before further work is undertaken.

2. Study of the history of the development of social studies as school subjects, to discover the specific reasons for the introduction and expansion of the courses.
3. Investigation of desirable action or behavior patterns.

The following are some of the approaches which have been made to determine such patterns.

- a. Analysis of the content of satisfactory social membership.
- b. Determination of the chief problems of citizenship and social membership.
- c. Formulation of the basic processes of society.
- d. Tabulation of desirable or desired social attitudes as indicated by legislation and the activities of various organizations.

The present projects on the teaching of nationalism and the teaching of citizenship will undoubtedly throw light on this phase of the problem.

- e. Studies in moral education.
- f. Studies in social guidance and control.

4. Other methods of approach may be found necessary as the study develops, but such methods should be employed subject to caution.

No other portion of the task of the proposed study offers so many opportunities for vain effort and futile expenditure of time and money. Numerous studies have already been undertaken which, at the cost of appalling effort, have led nowhere. In some cases, a careful analysis of the plans to be followed would have predicted failure; in other cases, it would have led to a strong suspicion of failure. There are relatively few workers capable of recognizing specific objectives in this field, but many who are willing to launch projects for the determination of such objectives. No projects should be undertaken without careful preliminary consideration by the proposed Central Committee.

Most of the work on this phase of the problem will be in the nature of studies of work already done or now in progress. Only the first two items, analysis of present courses and study of their history, will require direct studies, and these should be carefully

safeguarded against waste. A great amount of work has already been done, or is in progress, on the other items. Competent workers may be set the task of extracting from it results of value as formulations of the specific objectives of the social studies. In some cases it may be desirable to test the validity of methods of approach employed. It is obvious that such work will require competent workers not only of native ability but of some maturity as well. Graduate students may be employed for aid on details of the problem, but only with caution and careful guidance.

The importance of this task is so great that the Central Committee should be content to move slowly rather than take the risk of employing incompetent workers or embarking upon futile projects. It is essentially a research problem of a most exacting nature and should be carried on by persons of ability, maturity and experience allocated to centers best equipped for especial phases of the problem.

It is in connection with this division of the proposed study that the Central Committee will be required to exercise its greatest responsibility. It must weigh desirable and undesirable objectives. It must determine, on the evidence of tests, or by consensus of opinion, whether desirable objectives are attainable, and, if so, their relative importance. It is quite conceivable that the number may be greater than the school time will permit.

#### DETERMINATION OF CONTENT IN LIGHT OF OBJECTIVES

Closely related to the determination of the specific objectives of the social studies is the determination of content and subject-matter necessary to the attainment of these objectives. This problem shares with its predecessor the place of greatest importance in the proposed study. Because of its logical sequence to the determination of objectives, the determination of content will develop gradually, but some work may be undertaken immediately. As it progresses the results will contribute to the work on objectives, as in turn, the latter will contribute to problems of content. The following are some of the steps in this work:

##### 1. A careful, analytical study of present content.

The History Inquiry, supplementary findings of your present Committee, collection of textbooks, syllabi and widely used reference books will furnish the necessary material.

##### 2. Improvement of tests for attainment of objectives through content.

The early work on the determination of content in light of objectives should afford much opportunity for the improvement of testing devices. For further discussion of the testing program, see a later division of this report.

##### 3. Determination of usefulness of present material in serving the specific objectives determined by this study.

As desirable objectives are recognized, the present content should be ransacked for material with which to attain such objectives. Such material should then be submitted to test.

##### 4. Search for other material with which to attain

certain objectives not now reached, or to attain other objectives more nearly than at present.

Fortunately, a number of interesting experiments have been made with material not commonly included in the present content. This can be tested, but the possibility of having to seek new material remains a prospective task of the study. Such material should also be submitted to test.

Controlled experiments for testing material and objectives, though difficult to set up and maintain, are, nevertheless, among the most valuable and, time aside, the most satisfactory methods of testing achievement. The Bureau of Research of the National Education Association has organized a large group of schools of various types in which experimental work may be carried on. With their co-operation, a very considerable number of such experiments may be launched.

##### 5. A study of the relation of extra-curricular activities to the content of social studies.

It is a singular fact that the content of school subjects presumed to train for effective membership in society is so frequently determined without reference to the immediate social experiences of the student. Teachers seldom take into account the fact that their pupils are also functioning as members of society and will continue to do so. Hence it is a common occurrence that pupils, finding classroom instruction at variance with the lessons of their experience, lose confidence in school instruction. As a rule, the pupils either do not raise any questions about the contradictions, or soon cease to do so. The teachers, unaware of the conflict, continue their work with results diminishing almost to the point of complete futility.

To give vitality and effect to instruction in social subjects, it is necessary to take into account, so far as possible, the bearing of extra-curricular activities. Such an effort will have important consequences for the work on objectives as well as for that on content. The proposed study cannot undertake a complete analysis of extra-curricular activities having educative values for social training. Local divergence is too great and the situation in a given locality is undergoing continual change. It is doubtful whether this study should launch new projects in the field. Such projects, to yield valuable results, require an expenditure of time and money which may be unwise in view of the more immediate tasks. Nevertheless, it is possible and quite essential to examine studies already made or in progress for positive contributions to the teaching of the social studies. Such work will be analytical of work already done rather than direct research, and can be best accomplished by individual assignment either in the form of doctoral dissertations or other special studies.

The examination of extra-curricular activities should be made in two ways. First, a study should be made of school activities outside the curriculum of the social studies. This will include, briefly, school organization and administration, organized playground activities, athletic clubs or organizations, music clubs, debating clubs, study clubs, self-government organizations, special day observance programs, special rewards and exercises, song program in music

courses, readings in literature, readings in foreign languages and the social elements in other studies. A study should be made also of the contacts of the schools with the community, such as the contacts with the local government, public health and patriotic organizations, banks, newspapers, Parents and Teachers Associations, Civic and Commerce Associations, labor, social institutions, Red Cross and the League of Nations.

Second, a study should be made of activities beyond the reach of the schools. This will include the family, the neighborhood, the church, organized activities, such as gangs and clubs, the library, the newspaper, the cinema, the radio, public demonstrations, games and recreation, organized and spontaneous, travel, economic experience, social experience and political experience of the pupils outside of school.

In all cases, the individual studies should seek to determine the calculable contributions of these extra-curricular activities to the determined objectives of the social studies, the age at which these activities are engaged in, and the relation of such contributions to the content of the social studies.

#### ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT FOR TEACHING PURPOSES

The determination of content in light of objectives might be regarded as involving the organization of that content for teaching purposes. There are, however, a number of important problems in organization which might be overlooked unless set out specifically. Most of them are suggested by the wide variations in present practice. Several methods of attacking such problems are listed as follows:

1. Examination of present practices in organization of content, such as:
  - a. Various arrangements of courses offered in social studies.
  - b. Various combinations elected by students.
  - c. Experiments in fusion.

Inasmuch as nearly every conceivable combination of courses in history and the other social studies is being, or has recently been, used in the schools, there is a wealth of experimental material available for testing.

2. Study of the results of experimental work in laboratory schools, such as:
  - a. Variation in content.
  - b. Correlation of material.
  - c. Variations in pedagogical procedure, such as Dalton plan, Morrison plan, platoon system, part-time school.
  - d. Experiments in method.

Schools like the University High School of Chicago, the Horace Mann, Lincoln and Speyer Schools of Teachers' College, the University laboratory schools such as those of Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota and Wisconsin have introduced variations of a more or less sweeping character. These experiments bear upon nearly all the divisions of this study and should be carefully studied. They are, however, especially significant in connection with this division.

3. Examination of principles in organization, such as:

- a. Shall the organization be topical or chronological or a combination of the two?
- b. Shall it proceed from the simple to the complex or from the immediate to the remote?
- c. Shall it be a fusion of the social subjects or separate treatment of each?
- d. Shall it be in a line of continuous progress or in cycles?

It is desirable that the study consider these alternatives, or varying combinations of them. All have advocates and most of them have been tried out in practice. The first three may be effectively studied among variations in practice in this country. The fourth can be studied best by examination of European practice, particularly in France and Germany. These questions are fundamental, have a long history, and may be incapable of final solution. It is hoped, however, that the study will lead to recommendations less divergent and confusing than present practices.

4. Analysis of the effect of external circumstances, such as:
  - a. Length of school attendance.
  - b. Types of schools and varieties of courses.
  - c. Legal prescriptions of courses, subjects and topics.
  - d. Time allotment, periods, times per week, courses per year.

In large measure, these effects may be gleaned from statistics and published discussion. This survey of the literature should, however, be supplemented by careful observation, and it may be desirable to set up some controlled experiments.

#### GRADE-PLACEMENT

Problems of grade-placement belong logically to the organization of content for teaching purposes. Adjustment of subject-matter to the pupil's power of comprehension has received too little attention in the past. The same course is offered in any grade from the fourth to the fourteenth. In some cases the same textbooks are used for seven different grades. There are places in which modern international complications are presented to pupils in the seventh grade and others in which the story of Columbus, jewels and all, is recounted in simple narrative fashion to twelfth and even fourteenth grade students. The great need for improvement and recent helpful developments in educational research make it desirable to set grade placement of material apart as one of the major divisions of this study. Some aspects of the problem which should be studied are:

1. Tests of present practices.
2. Contributions from studies of the learning process.
 

Bibliography by the Canadian section of the Modern Foreign Language Investigation will be helpful in this task. Recent research on problems in reading should be searched carefully for contributions.
3. Is there a demonstrative natural order of social concepts corresponding to growth of pupils?
 

Both natural growth and normal social experience should be considered.
4. To what extent is grade-placement a matter of vocabulary?
5. To what extent does grade-placement require the



selection of concrete material and narrative account and other methods of instruction? How early and to what extent can important generalizations be taught effectively?

6. To what extent do individual differences fix limits to the amount and kinds of learning in the social studies?
7. To what extent is grade-placement affected by sequence of courses?
8. To what extent is grade-placement affected by other subjects?

An immense amount of investigation of the effect of individual differences is now under way—some already published. Nearly every school system is making adjustments on the basis of individual differences. Many teachers of history and social studies have experimented with graduated assignments. The material which bears upon the social studies should be collected. Additional studies or experiments may be launched in connection with work of psychologists.

Studies in leadership are of paramount importance in connection with this topic, for the social studies must consciously train both leaders and followers. Large projects have been started and many studies completed on the problem of leadership which should be studied for their bearing upon the treatment of individual differences in the social studies.

A study of European textbooks should yield important findings on grade-placement.

#### METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

The problem of the best methods of instruction frequently looms before the classroom teacher as the most important element in the whole situation. It may be safely assumed that teachers and administrators will continue to work on this problem. The chief service which the proposed study can render in the field of method is to serve as a clearing house for the critical evaluation of methods now employed. This can be done in large measure by study and observation. To some extent, it may require the use of controlled experiments. Except as a means for attaining objectives, the consideration of method is not a major concern of the proposed study, and the extent of effort applied to this aspect of the work may safely be made dependent upon the other tasks of the study. Some of the problems which should receive consideration are:

1. The listing and classification of methods now in use.

The standard textbooks on methods, general as well as special, and the pedagogical periodicals should be combed for this material.

It is important to make a sharp distinction between plans of pedagogical procedure, which are compounded of fundamental methods in various combinations, and the fundamental methods themselves. In recent years there has arisen a practice of applying distinctive names to such combinations, such as Dalton plan, Morrison procedure, Winnetka plan. The number of such possible combinations is almost endless. The emphasis of the proposed study should be placed primarily upon the underlying principles.

2. Critical study and evaluation of methods for the attainment of desired aims should include:

- a. A study of the applicability of special systems of methods to ordinary conditions.
- b. A re-evaluation of fundamental procedures in light of present practices.

These fundamental procedures are employed in various forms which should be taken into account. The following are examples of such procedures:

Textbook recitation	Socialized recitation
Lecture	Problem method
Supervised study procedure	Graduated assignment
Activities	

- c. Critical study of special devices employed in the teaching of the social studies, such as:

Analytical outline	Pictorial material
Comparative notes	Charts and diagrams
Synthetic topic	Dramatization
Map reading and place location	Collection, organization and preservation of materials
Current and contemporary accounts	Laboratory exercises
Archaeological materials	Reproduction of activities
Models—collected or made	

These devices seem fundamental. Their possible variations are endless. Nearly every device used to impart information in the school and in the world is potentially applicable to the social studies. An important service to be rendered here is to assign the relative efficiency of these devices. What is the contribution to the subject relative to the time and effort each involves?

- d. Determination of material equipment essential to effective instruction in social studies.

1. Listing of varieties and combinations of materials now used, such as:

Books, text-supplementary-general reference, periodical literature  
Maps, globes, atlases, wall maps and outline maps  
Charts, documents  
Furniture, tables, filing cases, bulletin boards and other display equipment  
Archaeological materials  
Models and materials necessary for project work  
Pictorial materials

Some attention should be given to the equipment used in teaching history and geography in European countries, especially in Germany and in the Scandinavian countries.

2. Critical evaluation of pedagogical worth of this material.
3. Recommendation of minimum essential equipment.

In view of the almost unlimited amount and kind of equipment which may be used to some advantage and actually is being used in various places, positive recommendations of minimum essential equipment are highly desirable. They will serve both to strengthen the requests for equipment on the part of schools inadequately supplied, and to prevent exorbitant demands.

#### IMPROVEMENT OF TESTS

The old-fashioned examination has been under fire for some time both as a device of instruction and as an accurate measure of achievement. More important is the fact that psychologists have devised meth-

ods of testing and measuring results of instruction which promise to prove useful in the teaching of the social studies. The need for the most accurate testing devices possible arises in connection with nearly every division of this study. While relying still upon sensitive and well-trained teachers to furnish the most important gauge of results, it is desirable also to enlist whatever aid objective tests may offer. There is need of such help in the determination of objectives, organization of content and grade-placement, as well as in the formulation of examinations. For these reasons it seems desirable to make the improvement of tests in the social studies a major division of the proposed study. Some of the aspects of testing which should receive attention are:

1. A study of older methods of test and measurement. The extensive literature, critical and expository, which has already appeared, should be carefully studied before additional studies are undertaken.

2. The present use of the new-type tests in the social studies.

Literature on the new-type tests in general is growing at an enormous rate. The application of this work to the social studies is more recent, but the accompanying bibliography contains a rather imposing list of titles and indicates intense activity at the present time.

3. The formulation of tests to measure more subtle values.

A rather casual survey of tests thus far developed indicates that the new-type examinations have not reached out far beyond the measurement of specific information. The efforts to test "moral judgment," "thought," "time sense," and "place sense" are, as their titles indicate, pioneer efforts which must be greatly refined before they can be of practical use. Very little has, as yet, been done to measure such values as the acquisition of important social points of view, attitudes and ideals; skill in the handling of material; efficient search for material; discrimination between fact and opinion; recognition of authoritative work; and the awakening of new or deeper interests, vocational or recreational.

4. Testing the validity and the reliability of new tests.

The preceding task, the formulation of tests, is the problem of the teacher and psychologist. Determination of the validity and reliability of such tests requires the assistance of the statistician. As tests are formulated, experimental conditions must be determined, trial applications made, and the results must be critically investigated with all the assistance that educational statistics can render.

5. A study of the function of tests.

Thus far, consideration has been limited to measurement as the most important function of tests. Teachers require assistance on their various other uses, such as:

- a. Diagnostic: to determine both ability and previous training of students as guides for later work.
- b. Placement: to determine interest, achievement, and distinctive abilities of individuals.
- c. Instructional: to aid in emphasizing important, and in breaking up difficult, phases of subject matter, and also to serve as devices for fixation of material.
- d. Achievement: to measure progress under instruction.
- e. Motivation: to afford normal standards as a guide

and stimulant for students of varying abilities. Self-testing and self-grading charts and other devices of this kind are already in use.

6. Recommendations on the use of testing methods both old and new.

Considered apart from work now in progress, the program of this division would seem to mean the creation of a new profession. On the contrary, this task should take up relatively little of the energy of the study. There is already a large and thriving profession of psychologists engaged in mental and educational measurements. There are many special bureaus of research in this field. The idea of advance in education through new-type examinations has acquired such momentum among school administrators and teachers that the use of these examinations is certain to continue at high tide while the proposed study is in progress. Probably most of the experimental work, including some formulation of tests and statistical analysis of results, may be expected from them. The chief responsibility of this study will consist of directive oversight, supplemented by attention to aspects of the problem not adequately provided for under existing conditions.

The question of special assistance from psychologists should be considered carefully. Owing to the relative intangibility of values in social subjects and the consequent difficulty of the testing program, it would seem best to arrange for the effective co-operation of the most expert psychologists in the country. Such authorities, however, are so deeply engrossed in their own problems that it will be impossible to detach them for exclusive attention to this proposed study for any considerable length of time. The best arrangement may be to obtain their assistance through fellows working under their immediate guidance. Perhaps one or another of the experts especially interested in measurement of social values might be drafted for this work for brief intervals. It is unlikely that any one psychologist who might be attached permanently to the study could be of greatest use to it.

Finally, it must always be remembered that the whole problem is primarily a responsibility of the teachers of the social studies and that the psychologists can give only advice and counsel. Even after several years of the best effort, it is not to be expected that all the values of the social studies will lend themselves to precise mathematical measurement.

It is highly probable that the experience of this study will repeat that of several of the others, notably of the Classical and the Modern Foreign Language Investigations. If so, the only outlay for tests will be the initial cost of formulating them. Once formulated, the tests will pay for themselves and provide a sufficient income to maintain a staff of workers for revision and improvement of tests. The value of such a development for the continual improvement of teaching has already been clearly demonstrated in other fields.



## PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

A study which did not include an examination of the preparation of teachers as one of its major problems would be neglecting its most important duty. While equally true of all fields of teaching, the preparation of teachers seems especially important in a field so directly concerned with civic and social training. The proposed study should, therefore, take up at least the following phases of the problem:

1. Fact-finding on the present situation, involving such items as:
  - a. Subject-matter preparation.
  - b. Pedagogical preparation.
  - c. Experience.
  - d. Subjects taught
    - In social studies group
    - Other subjects
  - e. Teaching load
    - Number of subjects taught
    - Size of classes
    - Daily preparation
    - Other duties
  - f. Certification requirements
    - State and city
    - Special requirements of teacher-training institutions

Many important inferences regarding the situation in this field may be drawn from statistical studies of the Classical Investigation, and especially from those of the more recent Modern Foreign Language Investigation. A recent investigation of Teachers' Colleges bears directly on training for social studies. Additional inquiry doubtless will be necessary.

Before any drag-net questionnaire is attempted, it should be determined carefully whether typical rather than complete information will not suffice.
2. Determination of minimum preparation in the light of the findings of the whole study, especially as to:
  - a. Subject-matter
    - Direct
    - Related
  - b. Pedagogical training
    - Theoretical
    - Practical
  - c. Experience
    - Is a period of training in service essential?
    - If so, what should be the arrangement of study and practice?
  - d. Personality
    - Are certain personal qualities especially desirable?
3. Determination of proper teaching load under typical conditions;
  - a. Amount of daily preparation required for separate courses.
  - b. Amount of paper work required for separate courses.
  - c. Desirable combinations of subjects.

Under items 2 and 3 any recommendations must be regarded as advisory to administrative demands.

Absolute uniformity will, of course, be impossible and even minimum essential requirements must be graduated to actual variations which obtain in school administration. The co-operation of school administrators and experts in this field of educational research is essential for the improvement of this situation.

## 4. Suggestions for education of teachers in service.

The social studies are more exacting in their requirements of progressive education for their teachers than any other subjects in the curriculum if, for no other reason, than that they train for effective membership in a society that is changing. It is, therefore, desirable that this study make some suggestions looking toward improvement in the present haphazard provision for continued education of teachers in both matter and method. A survey of present methods and their results would be an excellent preliminary to such recommendations.

## CONTRIBUTIONS FROM FOREIGN PRACTICE

There can be no doubt that we could gain much from a study of foreign practice, especially in Europe. While there are many points of difference and each country has to meet problems peculiar to itself, those very differences may prove helpful by the challenge of comparison. There are also a number of respects in which those countries promise direct help.

A number of the important countries of the world are reorganizing their educational programs, or have recently done so. The considerations involved in these reorganizations might be of great advantage to us.

Furthermore, most European countries have dealt in a practical way with the problem of providing a coherent vertical program extending from the elementary school through the equivalent of our junior college grades. Some of those countries actually have a program of social studies continuous through all of those grades.

Teaching has there acquired the dignity of a life career, whereas the average tenure of teachers even in our secondary schools has been only a few years. The results of this difference should appear in classroom instruction, and, to some extent, in material equipment.

Much of the contribution which foreign practice can make to the solution of our problem may be gained from a study of their programs, textbooks, equipment and pedagogical discussions available in this country. The responsibility for doing this work has been definitely assigned to the following divisions of this study:

The organization of content for teaching purposes.

Grade-placement of subject-matter.

Methods of instruction, including material equipment.

Preparation of teachers.

It will be wise to undertake also careful observation of actual practice in at least France, Germany, Austria and England.

### MATERIALS ON HAND AT CONCLUSION OF WORK

#### I. Alphabetical bibliography on the teaching of history and the other social studies in the schools

This represents an effort to compile a complete list of articles, pamphlets, books and periodicals on this subject which have appeared since 1899 when the bibliography of the Committee of Seven was compiled. A large part of this list was contributed by Mr. W. G. Kimmel, of the University of Chicago, and by the Bureau of Curriculum Research of Teachers' College, Columbia University. There are nearly 6,000 titles thus far, but the list is incomplete in many ways.

#### II. Classified bibliography

There are nearly 4,000 titles of articles, pamphlets, books and periodicals in this bibliography. The collection and classification were made for exploratory purposes. It may be of some service as the nucleus for a more complete and more accurate classified bibliography.

#### III. List of organizations, lay and professional, interested in the social studies in the schools

Though this list contains the names of over 700 such organizations, whose interest ranges all the way from complete programs to concern for only a single item in one of the social subjects, there is reason to believe that it is not complete. The Committee is very much indebted to Miss Bessie L. Pierce, of the University of Iowa, for assistance in compiling this list.

#### IV. List of projects now under way which bear directly or indirectly on the study of social subjects in the schools

This list contains some 300 separate projects ranging in magnitude from large co-operative enterprises well financed to the single subject at which some teacher is working in the uncertain hours of leisure from routine work. The American Council of Learned Societies, through Mr. F. A. Ogg, of the University of Wisconsin, gave generous assistance in compiling this list.

#### V. List of recent educational surveys

This list of not quite 100 titles will supplement the published list of such surveys. The Committee is indebted to the Bureau of Research of the National Education Association and to the United States Bureau of Education for assistance in compiling this list.

#### VI. An exploratory analysis of current textbooks in social studies

This analysis was made for the Committee by Mr. Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College.

#### VII. List of books and pamphlets collected by the Committee

This collection was made to supplement the resources of the local libraries. The 400 odd items include both books and pamphlets, most of them obtained as gifts from many organizations, state and city departments of education and individuals to whom grateful acknowledgment has been separately made.

#### VIII. Studies compiled from letter inquiries

1. Status of History and Other Social Studies in the Schools—1925.
2. Status of History and Other Social Studies in the Schools—1926.
3. Problems in Classroom Instruction.
4. Research Possibilities.
5. An Inquiry regarding the Proportion of Advanced Instruction in the Social Studies given in State Universities to Prospective Teachers of those Subjects.

These groups of correspondence contain letters from state and city superintendents of schools, from instructors engaged in the training of teachers, and from teachers in the schools. They should be of value in any later study as indicating trends in the number and character of courses of the social studies offered and required. They are useful in revealing where important curriculum revision in this field has occurred. They will probably also help in disclosing both problems and workers competent to attack those problems.

#### IX. Miscellaneous charts and studies

## The Distribution of Governmental Powers

BY PROFESSOR FRANK H. GARVER, UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA, LOS ANGELES

A political union implies component states. A Federal system implies a dual government; one central and several local governments. The existence of dualism requires a division or distribution of powers between the two governments.

The founders of our Federal system had all the powers of government at their disposal. One of their most difficult problems was the proper distribution of these powers between the newly created central, or national, government and the already existing state governments. This distribution was effected in two ways—Positively, by conferring certain powers on the National government; Negatively, by imposing certain restrictions on the States.<sup>1</sup>

To illustrate the positive and negative distribution of powers between the national and state governments, Tiedeman drew a diagram<sup>2</sup> which is herewith reproduced together with its legend or explanation.

Outer circle represents totality of governmental powers (Fig. I).

Circle A, powers delegated to the United States.

Circle B, powers reserved to the states.

Segment C, concurrent powers.

Segment D, powers prohibited to both branches of government.

Segment E, powers prohibited to the states, but neither prohibited nor delegated to the United States.

Many authors of textbooks, both high school and college, have reproduced Tiedeman's illustration, either exactly or with a slight variation. Hinsdale<sup>3</sup> and Woodburn<sup>4</sup> reproduce it without variation. On the other hand, Magruder,<sup>5</sup> Guiteau,<sup>6</sup> and Forman<sup>7</sup>—to name no others—reproduce the illustration exactly, but alter the legend to read as follows:

"The ellipse represents the sum total of governmental powers.

Circle A represents powers delegated to the national government.

Circle B, powers reserved to the states.

Segment C, concurrent powers.

Segment D, powers prohibited to the national government.

Segment E, powers prohibited to the states."<sup>8</sup>

From this alteration of the legend it will be seen that segments D and E are made to represent prohibitions somewhat different from what they represented in Tiedeman's legend. This improved classification of the powers distributed between the two governments is used by many writers, including James Bryce.<sup>9</sup>

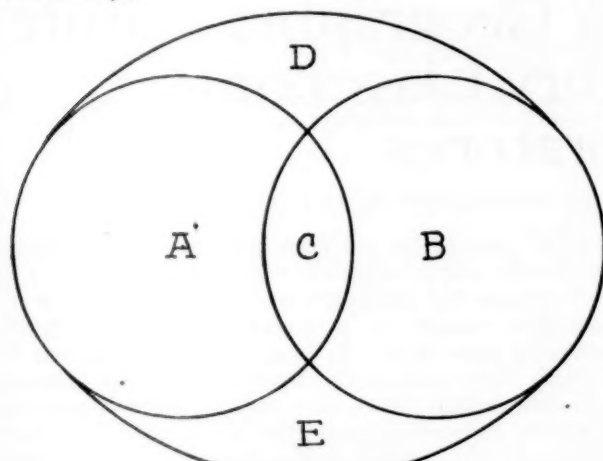


Figure I

Ogg and Ray<sup>10</sup> add a sixth class of powers, namely: Powers prohibited to both the national and state governments. Kimball,<sup>11</sup> who gives an adaptation of Stimson's classification, adds a seventh group of powers, namely: Powers reserved to the people. The most elaborate classification of powers is that of Stimson,<sup>12</sup> who recognizes nine classes, or groups, of powers and rights, delegated or reserved or prohibited to the national government, the state governments, or to the people.

For the purposes of secondary schools, perhaps, the most useful classification of governmental powers is that of Ogg and Ray, who recognize six groups. Below is presented an original diagram, or graph, illustrating this six-fold classification. Tiedeman's classification of powers is not as good as that of Bryce, Magruder, Guitteau, and Forman. On the other hand, neither classification is well illustrated by Tiedeman's diagram, the defects of which should cause it to be discarded. Taking for example, Magruder's adaptation of Tiedeman's diagram, the illustration has three serious defects, as follows: (1) there is no more reason for saying that segment D represents powers prohibited to the national government than to say it represents powers prohibited to the states. In like manner, it is no more logical to say that segment E represents powers prohibited to the states rather than to the nation. (2) The powers

denied to the national government (D) are not taken from the national circle (A). Presumably, if these powers had not been denied to the national government, they might have been delegated to it, but this is rendered impossible because they were never within the possible scope of the national government (Circle A). In like manner, the powers denied to the states (E) were never within the possible scope of the states (Circle B) and are not taken therefrom as logically they should have been. (3) In the third place, the diagram of Tiedeman does not show the powers denied to both governments, a class of powers as distinct as either D or E. In the graph which follows these three defects of the older diagram are eliminated (Fig. II).

Circle A represents all possible powers of the national government.

Circle B represents all possible powers of the states.

Area A represents powers delegated to the national government.

Area B represents powers reserved to the states.

Segment C represents concurrent powers.

Segment D represents powers prohibited to the national government.

Segment E represents powers prohibited to the states.

Segment F represents powers prohibited to both governments.

In this new attempt to illustrate the distribution of powers, circle A represents all of the possible powers of the national government. Area A represents the powers actually delegated to that government. Circle B represents all of the possible powers of the state governments. Area B, the powers actually reserved to them. Segment C, as before, represents the concurrent powers.

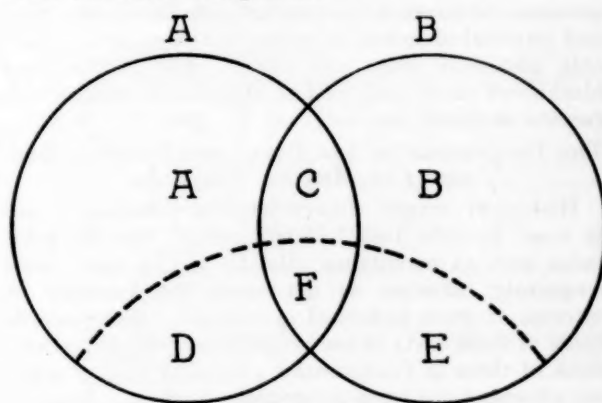


Figure II

The broken line cuts off the powers prohibited. Segment D, representing powers prohibited to the national government, is cut from circle A. Segment E, representing powers prohibited to the states, is cut from circle B. Segment F represents powers prohibited to both governments. It is logically cut from both of the circles, A and B. Thus the defects



of the older diagram are corrected, while a sixth class of powers, namely, those denied to both governments, is shown.

<sup>1</sup> Bryce, *The American Commonwealth*, Volume I, page 313.

<sup>2</sup> Tiedeman, *The Unwritten Constitution of the United States*, page 138.

<sup>3</sup> Hinsdale, *The American Government*, page 122.

<sup>4</sup> Woodburn, *The American Republic*, page 88.

<sup>5</sup> Magruder, *American Government*, page 51.

<sup>6</sup> Guitteau, *Government and Politics in the United States*, page 236.

<sup>7</sup> Forman, *The American Democracy*, page 49.

<sup>8</sup> This is Guitteau's wording of the legend, or classification, of powers. Other authors vary it slightly but immaterially.

<sup>9</sup> Bryce, *The American Commonwealth*, Volume I, page 314.

<sup>10</sup> Ogg and Ray, *Introduction to American Government*, pages 150-152.

<sup>11</sup> Kimball, *The National Government of the United States*, pages 52-55.

<sup>12</sup> Stimson, *The American Constitution as It Protects Private Rights*, Diagram between pages 222 and 223.

## Historical Material of a Geographic Nature Suitable for History Classrooms and Laboratories

BY PROFESSOR R. M. TRYON, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Both the supply and demand for historical maps, charts, and material of a similar nature have been rapidly increasing during the past decade. The movement for increased emphasis on the social studies in the grades and high school has been paralleled by an exaction for better equipment and more effective teaching. A real historical library-laboratory is beginning to make its appearance in a few schools. Much of the equipment in this library-laboratory consists of maps, charts, and similar tools for the student's use. In view of this fact, teachers of history and the other social studies must interest themselves in the place, importance, use, and supply of historical maps, charts, and material of a similar nature. To assist those who are now struggling with this important problem is the purpose of the discussion that follows. The phases of the subject to which attention is directed are: the importance of the place and physical elements in history teaching, some available historical maps and charts, desk outline and blackboard maps, and outline atlases and similar aids for the student's use.

### THE IMPORTANCE OF THE PLACE AND PHYSICAL ELEMENTS IN HISTORY TEACHING

Historical events always happen somewhere and at some specific time. Furthermore, certain influences such as mountains, climate, rivers, and plains frequently influence or determine the direction or outcome of great historical movements. Some people speak of these facts as the geographic influence, others think of them as fundamental phases of history without attaching the term geographic to them. Regardless of the name given to such influences, the teacher of history constantly faces them and therefore must give them considerable attention.

One way to give the space and physical elements the attention they deserve is to recognize the importance of historical maps and give them a conspicuous part in the equipment for history teaching. Teachers have long recognized the need for good historical maps in the textbooks they use. The strong demand

on the part of the textbook-using public for history textbooks amply supplied with desirable maps has led present-day publishers and authors to include an adequate supply of well-made and wisely chosen maps in their texts. In fact, they are so anxious to satisfy their patrons in respect to the map features of their history texts that they sometimes actually include too much equipment of this nature. In their efforts to get a large number of maps they frequently include too many maps whose smallness in size makes them almost useless. This is especially true of the black and white maps—the colored ones in most cases being large enough to make them of much value.

Besides drawing heavily on the maps in the book, the teacher can rely on at least two other means of emphasizing the place and physical elements of history. These are by asking the pupils to make a map now and then, and by utilizing in the classroom the historical maps and charts now on the market. Inasmuch as the available supply of material relative to both of these phases of the work is fully considered below, a special treatment of them is unnecessary here.

### SOME AVAILABLE HISTORICAL MAPS AND CHARTS

The use of wall maps and historical charts is on the increase. Inasmuch as the best wall maps are usually much more expensive than the same sort of material in the form of charts, the latter type is more used than the former. The available supply of the latter is also much in excess of the former, especially in the United States, as indicated in detail below. The list aims to be exhaustive. If omissions are known to any reader the writer would be glad to learn of them. It might be possible to list them in a later issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

#### 1. Available Historical Maps and Charts in American History

A. Sanford-Gordy *American History Maps*. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Twenty maps as follows:

1. The Mediterranean World about 500 B. C.
2. The Roman World—Expansion and Conflict.

3. The Barbarian Invasion and Medieval Europe.
  4. The Age of Discovery.
  5. Spanish and French Explorers.
  6. European Beginnings in America, 1634.
  7. Early Colonies.
  8. Division of North America Among the Nations.
  9. The Revolution.
  10. The Westward Movement.
  11. Growth of the United States, 1800-1820—War of 1812.
  12. Slavery in the United States, 1821.
  13. Internal Improvements, 1825-1850.
  14. The Approach of the Civil War.
  15. The Expansion of the American Nation, 1783-1860.
  16. The Civil War.
  17. Growth of the Great West.
  18. Population and Industries.
  19. The World War.
  20. The United States as a World Power, 1898-1925, World War Adjustments.
- B. The Sanford American History Maps. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Thirty-two maps as follows:
- \*1. World Explorers.
  - \*2. Spanish Explorers.
  - \*3. French Explorers.
  - \*4. Colonial Boundaries.
  5. Settlements in 1760.
  - \*6. Divisions of North America.
  - \*7. The Revolution, North.
  - \*8. The Revolution, South and West.
  - \*9. Land Claims.
  10. Land Survey.
  11. Westward Migration.
  12. Population in 1790.
  - \*13. Louisiana Purchase.
  14. Growth of Population.
  - \*15. Land Campaigns, War of 1812.
  16. Naval Battles, War of 1812.
  17. Monroe Doctrine.
  18. Internal Improvements.
  - \*19. Missouri Compromise.
  - \*20. Mexican War.
  21. Railroads and Canals.
  22. Elections Before 1860.
  23. Slavery and Territorial Acquisitions.
  - \*24. Freedom and Slavery.
  25. Election of 1860 and Secession.
  26. Civil War in the East.
  - \*27. Civil War and Abolition.
  - \*28. Elections since 1860.
  29. The West and Conservation.
  30. Cities and Immigration.
  31. Pacific Possessions.
  - \*32. America and the World War.
  - \*An Abridged set of sixteen maps.
- C. Hart-Bolton American History Maps. Chicago: Denoyer-Geppert Company. Forty-eight maps as follows:
1. World of Columbus.
  2. World Explorations to 1580.
  3. Caribbean Settlement, 1492-1525.
  4. International Rivalries, 1580-1750.
  5. English Colonial Grants, 1580-1763.
  6. Partition of America, 1700 and 1763.
  7. Colonial Commerce and Industries.
  8. Revolutionary War, 1775-1783.
  9. State Claims and Ratification, 1776-1802.
  10. Westward Movement, 1763-1829.
  11. Louisiana Purchase, 1803-1819.
  12. Territorial Acquisitions, 1776-1866.
  13. Land and Water Routes, 1829-1860.
  14. Mexican War and Compromise of 1850.
  15. Secession, 1860-1861.
  16. Civil War, 1861-1865.
  17. Abolition and Reconstruction.
  18. Western Statehood and Land Grants.
  19. Lines of Transportation.
  20. Resources and Conservation.
  21. Industrial United States (Eastern).
  22. Agricultural United States.
  23. United States in the Caribbean.
  24. Greater United States.
  25. Population Density, 1790 to 1870.
  26. Population Density, 1880 to 1910.
  27. Population Density, 1920.
  28. United States Land Survey.
  29. Presidential Elections, 1796 to 1820.
  30. Presidential Elections, 1824 to 1844.
  31. Presidential Elections, 1841 to 1860.
  32. Presidential Elections, 1864 to 1876.
  33. Presidential Elections, 1880 to 1892.
  34. Presidential Elections, 1896 to 1908.
  35. Presidential Elections, 1912 to 1924.
  36. Slavery, 1776 to 1849.
  37. Slavery, 1850 to 1865.
  38. Manhood Suffrage.
  39. Woman Suffrage.
  40. Anti-Liquor Laws.
  41. Source of Immigrants.
  42. Immigration of Various Peoples.
  43. Transportation at Various Periods.
  44. Power of the Voter.
  45. Chart of Federal Government.
  46. Chart of State and County Government.
  47. Chart of City Government.
  48. United States Today.
- D. Foster's Historical Series of United States. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company. Forty-one maps as follows:
1. Early Explorers and Discoverers.
  2. Spanish Explorations.
  3. French Explorations.
  4. The Dutch and Swedes in America.
  5. The London and Plymouth Companies, 1606.
  6. The London Company, 1609. The Plymouth Company, 1620.
  7. The New England Grants.
  8. The Development of the New England States.
  9. The Grants to the Middle Colonies.
  10. The Development of the Middle States.
  11. Southern Grants.
  12. The Development of the Southern States.
  13. North America from 1755 to 1763.
  14. The Results of the French and Indian War.
  15. The Thirteen Colonies, the Proclamation Line, 1763, and the Quebec Act, 1774.
  16. The Early Campaigns of the Revolutionary War.
  17. The Northern Campaigns of the Revolutionary War.
  18. Washington's Campaigns.
  19. The Southern Campaigns of the Revolutionary War.
  20. Our Country at the Close of the Revolutionary War.
  21. The Territorial Claims of the Thirteen Colonies.
  22. The Northwest Territory and the Territory Southwest of the Ohio River.
  23. The Louisiana Purchase from France, 1803.
  24. The War of 1812.
  25. The Missouri Compromise and Florida Treaty.
  26. The United States in 1837 and the Republic of Texas.
  27. The Main Boundary and Webster-Ashburton Treaty.
  28. Oregon Country.
  29. Our Country, 1846.
  30. War with Mexico.
  31. Our Country at the Close of the Mexican War, 1848.
  32. The Compromise of 1850.
  33. The Kansas and Nebraska Act, 1854.
  34. Our Country, 1861-1865.
  35. Grant's Campaign in the West.
  36. Campaigns of Buell and Bragg.
  37. Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac *versus* the Campaigns of Robert E. Lee.

38. Chart of Political Parties.
  39. Drainage Map.
  40. Navigable Waters of the United States.
  41. United States and Her Possessions, 1917.
- E. McCoun's Historical Charts of the United States. Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company. Twenty-six maps as follows:
1. Drainage Map.
  2. First Division of North America, 1755-1764.
  3. Result of the French and Indian Wars, 1763-83.
  4. Result of Revolutionary War, 1783-1801.
  5. Spain Cedes Louisiana to France, 1801-1803.
  6. Louisiana Purchase, 1803-1821.
  7. The Florida Purchase, 1821-1853.
  8. Annexation of Texas and Oregon, 1845-1848.
  9. Result of Mexican War, 1848-1853.
  10. Gadsden and Russian Purchases, 1853-1890.
  11. Exploration Map.
  12. King James' Patent, 1606.
  13. Charters of 1609-1620.
  - 14-15. Foreign Claims to Atlantic Slope, 1640.
  16. Origin of Colonies, 1660.
  17. Grants to the Duke of York, 1664.
  18. English Colonies, 1763.
  19. Original States, 1775-1783.
  20. Land Claims of the States, 1783.
  21. Cessions to the Government, 1784-1802.
  22. Northwest and Southwest Territories, 1790.
  23. Missouri Territory and First New States, 1803.
  24. Republic of Texas, 1835-1845.
  25. The Civil War, 1861-65.
  26. United States, 1908.
- F. New Hart American History Maps. Chicago: Denoyer-Geppert Company. Twenty-four maps as follows:
1. Population Density, 1790 to 1870.
  2. Population Density, 1880 to 1910.
  3. Population Density in United States, 1920.
  4. United States Land Survey.
  5. Presidential Elections, 1796 to 1820.
  6. Presidential Elections, 1824 to 1844.
  7. Presidential Elections, 1848 to 1860.
  8. Presidential Elections, 1864 to 1876.
  9. Presidential Elections, 1880 to 1892.
  10. Presidential Elections, 1896 to 1908.
  11. Presidential Elections, 1912 to 1924.
  12. Slavery, 1776 to 1849.
  13. Slavery, 1850 to 1865.
  14. Manhood Suffrage.
  15. Woman Suffrage.
  16. Anti-Liquor Laws.
  17. Source of Immigrants.
  18. Immigration at Different Periods.
  19. Transportation at Various Periods.
  20. Power of the Voter.
  21. Chart of Federal Government.
  22. Chart of State and County Government.
  23. Chart of City Government.
  24. United States Today.
- G. United States History Maps. Goshen, Indiana: McConnell School Map Company. Forty maps as follows:
1. Europe, Commercial and Industrial, about 1453.
  2. Indians, During Early Exploration and Settlement.
  3. North and South America-Indians, Cultural and Food Areas.
  4. Spanish Exploration and Settlement to 1580.
  5. Voyages and Discoveries to 1610.
  6. European Settlements and Claims to About 1760.
  7. Early Grants and the Origin of the Thirteen Colonies.
  8. Claims of the Nations in North America, 1689-1713.
  9. The French and Indian Wars, 1754. Results, 1763.
  10. The Thirteen Colonies in 1774.
  11. The Revolution in the Middle and Northern Colonies.
  12. The Revolution in the South and West.
  13. Western Land Claims and the Ordinance of 1787.
  14. The United States in 1790, and about 1802.
  15. The United States in 1810.
  16. The United States in 1830.
  17. Transportation—River and Canal Periods, 1816-1840.
  18. The Mexican War, and Compromise of 1850.
  19. Elections of 1812, 1828, 1840, 1856.
  20. Territorial Expansion to 1854.
  21. The United States in 1861.
  22. Campaign and Election of 1860.
  23. The Progress of Emancipation to 1865.
  24. The Civil War, 1861-1865.
  25. The Westward Movement of Population to 1870.
  26. Transportation—Early Railroad Period, 1840-1880.
  27. Transportation—Later Railroad Period, 1880 on.
  28. The United States in 1890—Physical, Political, Economic.
  29. Four Important Elections Since the Civil War.
  30. Hispanic America—Wars of Independence and Inter-American Relations.
  31. South America—Commercial and Present Day.
  32. Western War Area.
  33. Agricultural Regions of the United States.
  34. Agricultural Products of the United States.
  35. Coal, Iron, Petroleum, Gas of the United States.
  36. Minerals of the United States.
  37. Manufacturing Industries of the United States.
  38. The United States and the Pacific Ocean.
  39. World Commerce.
  40. The United States—Present Day.
- II. Available Maps and Charts in Ancient History
- A. Breasted-Huth Ancient History Maps. Chicago: Denoyer-Geppert Company. Sixteen maps as follows:
1. Ancient World.
  2. Ancient Orient and Palestine.
  3. Oriental Empire.
  4. Eastern Mediterranean.
  5. Ancient Greece.
  6. Greek and Phoenician Colonization.
  7. Boetia and Attica.
  8. Athens.
  9. Sequence Maps of Greece.
  10. Alexander's Empire.
  11. Ancient Italy.
  12. Growth of Roman Power in Italy.
  13. Rome.
  14. Conquests of the Mediterranean.
  15. Caesar's Gaul.
  16. Roman Empire.
- B. McCoun's Historical Geography Charts of Europe—Ancient and Classical. Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company. Sixteen maps as follows:
1. Drainage Map of Europe.
  2. Early Centers of Civilization, 2800 B. C.
  3. Egypt under Rameses II, 1250 B. C.
  4. Homeric Greece, 1000 B. C.
  5. Greek and Phoenician Colonies, 800 to 600 B. C.
  6. Original Home and Dispersion of the Indo-European Race.
  7. Primitive Races in Western Europe, 560 B. C.
  8. Persian Attempt to Conquer Greece, 480 B. C.
  9. Greece at the Beginning of the Peloponnesian War, 431 B. C.
  10. Greek Civilization Carried into the East, 325 B. C.
  11. Rome after the Samnite Wars: Alexander's Empire, 290 B. C.
  12. Mediterranean Lands Before Second Punic War, 227 B. C.
  13. Rome after the Macedonian, Punic and Archaian Wars, 100 B. C.
  14. Rome at the Death of Caesar, 44 B. C.



15. Divisions: Eastern and Western Empires, 1-117 A. D.
16. Last Days of Rome, 475 A. D.
- C. Webster-Knowlton-Hazen Ancient History Maps. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Eighteen maps as follows:
  1. The Ancient World—Trade Routes and Commercial Products.
  2. Geographical Knowledge in Antiquity.
  3. Centers of Early Civilization.
  4. Oriental Empires.
  5. Greek Expansion and Conflict, 1500 to 404 B. C.
  6. Greek and Phoenician Settlements and Commerce about 550 B. C.
  7. Athens—City Plan.
  8. Ancient Greece and the Aegean.
  9. Alexander's Empire, 323 B. C.
  10. Ancient Italy.
  11. Development of the Roman Empire, 264 B. C. to 180 A. D.
  12. Rome—Imperial and Republican.
  13. Roman Empire (Reference Map).
  14. Growth of Christianity to the End of the Fourth Century.
  15. Migrations of the People of the Fifth Century.
  16. Early Germanic Kingdoms, 476-600 A. D.
  17. Expansion of Islam, 622-750 A. D.
  18. Europe in the Age of Charlemagne, 814 A. D.
- D. W. and A. K. Johnston's Ancient History Maps. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Seven maps as follows:
  1. Countries Bordering on the Mediterranean Sea.
  2. Orbis Veteribus Notus.
  3. Asia Minor Antiqua.
  4. Græcia Antiqua.
  5. Orbis Romanus.
  6. Italia Antiqua.
  7. Caesar De Bello Gallico.
- E. Ancient and Classical History Maps (University Series). Goshen, Indiana: McConnell School Map Company. Thirty-eight maps as follows:
  1. The Field of Ancient History, Asia.
  2. The Field of Ancient History, Europe.
  3. Ancient Peoples.
  4. Ancient Empires.
  5. The Persian Empire about 500 B. C.
  6. The Aegean World about 1000 B. C.
  7. Greek and Phoenician Colonies, 500 B. C.
  8. The Greek States, 490 B. C.
  9. The Greek and Persian Wars, 500-479 B. C.
  10. The Athenian Empire at its Height, 450 B. C.
  11. The Peloponnesian War.
  12. Theban Supremacy, about 362 B. C.
  13. The Rise of Macedonia, 336 B. C.
  14. Campaigns and Empire of Alexander.
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  36. Europe after the Migrations, 526 A. D.
  37. Europe at the Death of Charlemagne, 814 A. D.
  38. General Reference Map of the Roman World.
- III. Available Maps in Medieval and Modern History
  - A. Johnston's Medieval and Modern European History Maps. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Twenty-six maps as follows:
    1. The Formation of the Roman Empire.
    2. The Roman Empire Showing the Barbarian Inroads.
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    26. Racial Map of Europe.
  - B. Webster-Knowlton-Hazen Medieval and Modern History Maps. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Twenty-six maps as follows:
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    2. Christian Europe and the Crusades.
    3. Formation of European States, England, France and Spain.
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    23. The World in 1921.
    24. Industrial Revolution in England.
    25. Physical and Economic Europe, 1921.
    26. Peoples of Europe, 1921.
  - C. Harding European History Maps. Chicago: Denoyer-Geppert Company. Twenty-eight maps as follows:
    1. Barbarian Invasions of the Roman Empire.

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  3. Holy Roman Empire.
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  9. Europe at the Election of Charles V, 1519.
  10. Germany in the Time of the Reformation.
  11. Tudor and Stuart England.
  12. Europe in 1648.
  13. Europe in 1740.
  14. Discoveries and Colonization to 1763.
  15. Europe Under Napoleon.
  16. Europe in 1815.
  17. British Isles, Ireland and Scotland.
  18. Industrial England.
  19. Modern Italy.
  20. German Empire.
  21. The Balkans, 1683-1914.
  22. The World, in 1914.
  23. Europe in 1914.
  24. Economic Europe.
  25. Peoples of Europe.
  26. Northern France, Belgium, and the Rhine.
  27. Europe, January, 1920.
  28. Central Europe, 1918-1922.
- D. Philips' Wall Atlas of Modern History. New York: C. S. Hammond and Company. Eight maps as follows:
1. Europe about 800 A. D.
  2. Roman Britain and Anglo-Saxon England.
  3. Europe in the Age of the Crusades.
  4. Medieval England and Wales.
  5. Europe at the Time of the Reformation.
  6. North-Western Europe.
  7. Europe under Napoleon.
  8. England in 1700 and in 1911.
- E. Medieval and Modern History Maps (University Series). Goshen, Indiana: McConnell School Map Company. Forty-two maps as follows:
1. Physical Map of Europe.
  2. Europe at the Death of Charlemagne, 814.
  3. Europe after the Treaty of Verdun, 843.
  4. Feudal France and Germany about 1000.
  5. Europe about 1000.
  6. Roman and Anglo-Saxon Britain.
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  11. The Hundred Years War.
  12. Industrial and Commercial Europe about 1360.
  13. Political Europe about 1360.
  14. Expansion of the Ottoman Turks to 1460.
  15. Europe and the Near East in 1519.
  16. The Voyages of Discovery to 1610.
  17. Christians and Mohammedans in 1600.
  18. Europe in 1648.
  19. Bourbon France, 1600-1715.
  20. Europe in 1740.
  21. Europe in North America after 1713 and after 1763.
  22. Colonial Empires in 1763.
  23. Europe in 1789.
  24. Partitions of Poland.
  25. Europe under Napoleon, 1810.
  26. Europe after the Congress of Vienna, 1815.
  27. The World in 1815.
  28. The Unification of Germany.
  29. The Unification of Italy.
  30. Europe after the Congress of Berlin, 1878.
  31. The Balkan States, 1815-1914.
  32. Europe, Political and Industrial, 1914.
  33. Colonial Possessions of World Powers in 1914.
  34. The World War—Western Area, 1914-1918.
  35. The World War—Eastern Area, 1914-1918.
  36. The Turkish War Area, 1914-1918.
  37. The Far East, 1914-1918.
  38. The Nations at War in 1918.
  39. The Races of Europe.
  40. Europe after the Treaties of 1919-1920.
  41. Middle Europe after the Treaties of 1919-1920.
  42. The World after the Treaties of 1919-1920.
- F. MacCoun's Historical Geography Charts of European, Medieval and Modern Period, 526 to 1894 A. D. Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company. Nineteen maps as follows:
1. Europe at the Death of Theodoric the Ostrogoth, 526 A. D.
  2. Eastern or Byzantine Empire at its Greatest Extent, 526 A. D.
  3. Turanians Save Europe from Becoming Slavic, 700.
  4. Empire of Karl (Charlemagne) The Great, 814-843.
  5. The Beginning of Modern European States, 888.
  6. Foundation of the Holy Roman Empire.
  7. Europe at the Time of the First Crusade, 1095.
  8. Europe at the Time of the Fourth Crusade, 1200.
  9. Time of the Mongol Invasion, 1360.
  10. Europe During the One Hundred Years' War, 1420.
  11. Europe During the Reformation, 1563.
  12. Europe after the Thirty Years' War, 1648.
  13. Europe in the Age of Frederick the Great, 1775.
  14. Europe at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century, 1802.
  15. Europe at the Time of Napoleon, 1811.
  16. Europe at the Time of the Restoration, 1816.
  17. Europe after the Peace of Prague, 1866.
  18. Europe after Franco-Prussian and Russo-Turkish Wars, 1878, 1894.
  19. Ethnographical Map of Europe.
- IV. Early European History.
- A. Webster-Knowlton-Hazen Maps for Early European History. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Twenty maps as follows:
1. The Ancient World—Trade Routes and Commercial Products.
  2. Oriental Empires.
  3. Greek Expansion and Conflict, 1500 B. C.-404 B. C.
  4. Greek and Phoenician Settlements and Commerce about 550 B. C.
  5. Alexander's Empire, 323 B. C.
  6. Development of the Roman Empire, 264 B. C.-180 A. D.
  7. The Roman Empire.
  8. Migrations of the Peoples in the 5th Century.
  9. Early Germanic Kingdoms, 476-600 A. D.
  10. Expansion of Islam, 622-750 A. D.
  11. Europe in the Age of Charlemagne, 814.
  12. Europe in the Age of Otto the Great, 962.
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  17. Age of Discovery.
  18. Europe at the Accession of Charles V, 1519.
  19. Reformation and Counter Reformation.
  20. Europe after the Peace of Westphalia, 1648.
- B. Early European History Maps (University Series). McConnell School Map Company. Forty-two maps as follows:
1. Ancient Peoples.
  2. Ancient Empires.
  3. The Persian Empire about 500 B. C.
  4. Greek and Phoenician Colonies, 500 B. C.
  5. The Greek and Persian Wars, 500-479 B. C.
  6. The Athenian Empire at Its Height, 450 B. C.
  7. The Peloponnesian War.
  8. Theban Supremacy, about 362 B. C.
  9. Campaigns and Empire of Alexander.
  10. Divisions of Alexander's Empire, 301 B. C.
  11. General Reference Map of Ancient Greece.

12. General Reference Map of Ancient Italy.
13. The City of Athens.
14. The City of Rome.
15. The Mediterranean World, in 264 B. C.
16. The Roman World; 133 B. C.
17. The Roman World, 44 B. C.
18. The Roman World, 117 A. D.
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21. Europe after the Migrations, 500 A. D.
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23. Europe at the Death of Charlemagne.
24. Europe after the Treaty of Verdun, 843.
25. Feudal France and Germany about 1000.
26. Europe about 1000.
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29. Norman Conquest in England.
30. The Spread of Christianity, 325-1100.
31. The Hundred Years' War.
32. Crusading Europe.
33. Industrial and Commercial Europe about 1360.
34. Political Europe about 1360.
35. The Ottoman Turks in Europe and Asia about 1460.
36. Europe and the Near East in 1519.
37. The Voyages of Discovery to 1610.
38. Christians and Mohammedans in 1600.
39. Europe in 1648.
40. Bourbon France, 1600-1715.
41. Europe in 1740.
42. Europe in North America after 1713 and after 1763.

#### V. Modern European History.

- A. Webster-Knowlton-Hazen Maps for Modern European History. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Seventeen maps as follows:

1. Europe after the Peace of Utrecht, 1713.
2. Colonial Powers, 1783.
3. Europe on the Eve of the French Revolution, 1789.
4. Napoleonic Empire, 1812.
5. Europe after the Congress of Vienna, 1815.
6. Europe in 1871.
7. The Great War, 1914-1918.
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9. Prussia and the Unification of Germany.
10. Russia in Europe.
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12. Rise and Decline of the Ottoman Empire. Balkan States.
13. Exploration and Partition of Africa.
14. The World in 1921.
15. Industrial Revolution in England.
16. Physical and Economic Europe, 1921.
17. Peoples of Europe, 1925.

- B. Modern European and Modern World History Maps (University Series). Goshen, Indiana: McConnell School Map Company. Thirty-eight maps as follows:

1. Physical Map of Europe.
2. Europe and the Near East in 1740.
3. Europe in North America after 1713 and 1763.
4. Colonial Empires in 1763.
5. Industrial England.
6. Europe in 1789.
7. Partitions of Poland, 1772-1795.
8. Revolutionary France, 1789-1795.
9. Europe under Napoleon, 1810.
10. Europe after the Congress of Vienna, 1815.
11. The World in 1815.
12. The Unification of Germany.
13. The Unification of Italy.
14. Asia in 1800 and in 1884.
15. Africa in 1800 and in 1884.
16. Europe after the Congress of Berlin, 1878.
17. The Balkan States, 1815-1914.
18. Political and Industrial Europe, 1914.
19. Colonial Possessions of the World Powers, 1914.
20. Economic Western and Central Europe, 1914.

21. World Commerce, 1914.
22. The Mediterranean World in 1914.
23. The British Empire, 1914.
24. Africa, 1914 and 1922.
25. Asia, in 1914 and 1922.
26. South America in 1914.
27. Russia in 1914.
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34. The Races of Europe.
35. Europe after the Treaties of 1919-1920.
36. Middle Europe after the Treaties of 1919-1920.
37. The British Empire, 1920.
38. The World after the Treaties of 1919-1920.

#### VI. World History

- A. Webster-Knowlton-Hazen Maps for World History. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company. Thirty-two maps as follows:

1. Oriental Empires.
2. Greek Expansion and Conflict, 1500 B. C.
3. Greek and Phoenician Settlements and Commerce, about 550 B. C.
4. Alexander's Empire, 323 B. C.
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15. Age of Discovery.
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18. Colonial Powers, 1783.
19. Europe on the Eve of the French Revolution, 1789.
20. Napoleonic Empire, 1812.
21. Europe after the Congress of Vienna, 1815.
22. Europe in 1871.
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24. Europe after the Great War, 1921.
25. Prussia and the Unification of Germany.
26. Russia in Europe.
27. Renaissance and Modern Italy.
28. Rise and Decline of Ottoman Empire, Balkan States.
29. Exploration and Partition of Africa.
30. The World in 1921.
31. Industrial Revolution in England.
32. Peoples of Europe, 1925.

- B. Westermann's Classical and Historical Maps. Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company. Eleven maps as follows:

1. Ancient Oriental Empires.
2. Ancient Greece.
3. The Roman Republic.
4. The Roman Empire.
5. The Barbarian Invasion of Western Europe.
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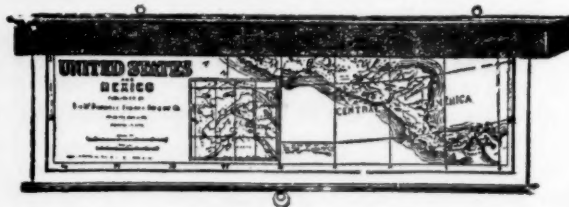
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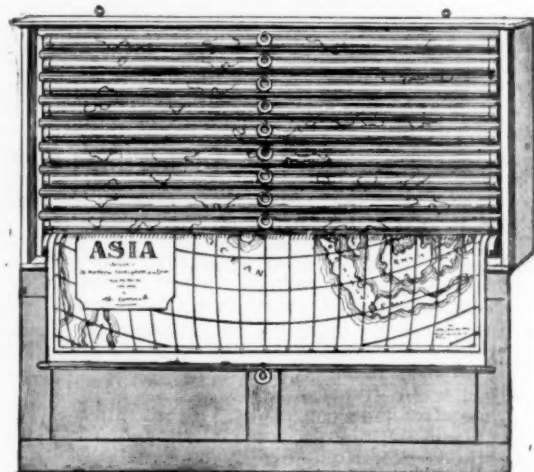
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Because of space limitations the single edition historical maps of various sizes are not included in this discussion. To list each of these maps would require more pages than the actual demand for them seems to justify. If anyone is in need of large and expensive wall maps he will be interested in looking up the series sold by the Denoyer-Geppert Company, the A. J. Nystrom and Company, Rand, McNally and

Company, the J. L. Hammett Company and probably other dealers in this country.

1. Spruner-Bretschneider Historical Maps. Ten maps, text in German, size 62 x 52 inches.
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3. Baldamus-Schwabe Historical Maps. Eighteen maps, text in German, size varying from 56 x 70 inches to 90 x 62 inches.
4. Kiepert Series of Classical Maps. Eight maps, text in German, size from 57 x 42 inches to 79 x 60 inches.
5. Kampen's Ancient History Maps. Four maps, text in Latin, size 65 x 60 inches to 78 x 66 inches.
6. Johnston's Classical Maps. Six maps, size 42 x 50 inches.

#### DESK AND WALL OUTLINE AND BLACKBOARD MAPS FOR INDIVIDUAL AND CLASS USE

The use of desk outline and blackboard maps has rapidly increased during the past decade. History teachers have come to the conclusion that the filling in from time to time throughout a given course of outline maps to show the geographic features of a period or movement is of supreme importance to the forming of concrete images and the acquiring of sound knowledge. For this reason, considerable care and thoughtful attention is being given to the map-making phase of all history courses.

While many teachers realize the value of a certain amount of map-making in connection with a given history course, they are also aware of some pitfalls that must be avoided in such work. Too many maps are occasionally required of students. Furthermore, map-work frequently degenerates to the level of mere busy work. To avoid these and other pitfalls in map-work the teacher can reduce the number of required maps in a year's course. A student will thus have the necessary time to meet a high standard of attainment in this work. The few maps that he makes will be good enough to place in his permanent notebook, along with other worth-while exercises.

Large wall outline maps are for sale by a few dealers in maps and charts. A limited use of these might well be made in any course in history. There are always two or three students in every group who are skillful in hand work. One or more of these each semester could be given the opportunity of making for the use of succeeding classes a wall map which would depict certain geographic features of the semester's work. Work of this character is accumulative. After three or four classes have gone over a semester's work, a valuable set of usable maps will be on hand for use in succeeding classes.

The blackboard outline maps which have been placed on the market recently are a valuable aid to classroom instruction. With one of these before the class while a discussion is in progress, an opportunity is afforded for an expression of the geographic phases of the discussion. Routes of explorers, locations of roads and canals, and the courses taken by invading armies may all be traced on the map right before the eyes of everyone present. Because of their great value and small expense, blackboard outline maps of the world, each of the continents and of the United

States could well find a place in each history classroom.

The supply of material such as desk, wall and blackboard outline maps is very large. There is so much of this kind of material that it is entirely impractical to list it in detail. Mention can be made only of some companies from which such aids can be secured. The writer has before him samples of desk outline maps from the following companies, many of whom also handle wall and blackboard maps.

1. McKinley's Desk Outline Maps. Philadelphia: The McKinley Publishing Company.
2. Heath's Progression Outline Maps. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company and J. L. Hammett Company.
3. Cartocraft Desk Outline Maps. Chicago: Denoyer-Geppert Company.
4. Johnston's Desk Outline Maps and Nyco Relief Desk Outline Maps. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom and Company.
5. Desk Outline Map Series. Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company.
6. Talisman Outline Maps. Chicago: Atkinson, Neutzer and Company.
7. Goode's Base Maps. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
8. The Harrison Series of Desk Outline Maps. Chicago: Denoyer-Geppert Company.
9. Loose Leaf Desk Outline Maps. Topeka, Kansas: Historical Publishing Company.
10. The D. and E. Series of Desk Outline Maps. Columbus, Ohio: Dobson-Evans Company.
11. New Century Development Desk Outline Maps. Boston: Silver, Burdett and Company.
12. United States and Possessions Series of Desk Outline Maps. Brooklyn, New York: Jennings Publishing Company.

There are, of course, other dealers in the United States from whom desk outline maps can be secured. Before deciding on the exact maps that he will ask his pupils to purchase, it might be worth while for the teacher to write for samples of the series listed above and others he knows about. While there is much similarity in all of them, each series has a feature which no other one has. For this reason, a history teacher ought to see a sample of each series before he can be sure he has the best on the market for his particular purpose.

#### OUTLINE ATLASES, NOTEBOOKS AND MAP EXERCISES FOR INDIVIDUAL USE

Instead of using the loose leaf system which the desk outline maps seem to anticipate, some teachers prefer to have their students purchase outline atlases, notebooks or map exercise books for each course in history. Publishing companies have not been slow in catering to this demand. For example, the McKinley Publishing Company now has on the market outline atlases and notebooks for English, United States, Ancient, Early European, Later European, and European. The atlases consist of twenty-five large size outline maps as well as many specific page references to historical atlases and textbooks where material can be found for the filling in of the maps. The notebooks contain twenty-five large size outline maps combined with blank leaves.

Other companies have placed on the market material to put in the hands of the student similar to the outline atlases and notebooks mentioned above. The

Historical Publishing Company, of Topeka, Kansas, has on the market Foster's Historical Outline Map Books in American, Modern, Medieval and Modern, English, Ancient and General history. These books contain nothing but outline maps with a few directions for filling them in. The World Company, of Fort Worth, Texas, also publishes what is called the Standard Historical Studies. These consist of outlines, outline maps, and notes in Modern, Ancient, United States, and Texas history. While the outline map is a large feature in these studies, the outlines, explanations, and notes add a phase not found in other similar series.

Books for the use of the student, which combine outline-map work with study outlines and guides, as well as picture and notebook exercises are by no means rare. Those that have been brought to the attention of the writer are:

1. Crown Series of Historical Outlines for Modern, Ancient, United States, English, Medieval, and Modern History by S. E. Frost, and American History by L. W. Newton. Dallas, Texas: Southern Publishing Company.
2. A Study-Guide in European History and a Students' Study-Guide in Ancient History. The former is based on the Pennsylvania high school course and the latter is by Gertrude Van Duys Southworth. Syracuse, New York: Iroquois Publishing Company.
3. Study Outline in Oriental and Greek Peoples and The Roman People by L. B. Lewis and Edna M. McKinley. Cincinnati, Ohio: American Book Company.
4. American History Notebook, Numbers One and Two by L. V. Spriggs. Chicago: Hall and McCreary Company.
5. Notebook for American History, Parts I and II, by S. D. Moss. New York: Oxford Book Company.
6. Illustrated Topics for American History by A. E. McKinley; Illustrated Topics for Medieval and Modern History by D. C. Knowlton; and Illustrated Topics for Ancient History by the same author. Philadelphia: The McKinley Publishing Company.
7. Class Room Manuals for Ancient, Medieval and Modern, English and American history by J. G. Riff. Topeka, Kansas: The Historical Publishing Company.

In 1920, Ginn and Company published *Practical Map Exercises in Geography and History*, by Atwood, Allen and Robinson. The new idea in this book related to the making of the maps. Students were not expected to fill in the outline maps that appeared in the book, but were to use them as a basis for tracing a map, the tracing paper needed for this being included in the book. Since 1920 Ginn and Company have published *Practical Map Exercises and Syllabi in Ancient history, European history to 1714, Medieval and Modern European history, European history since 1714, American history, and English history*.

In closing this consideration of historical material of a geographic nature suitable for classrooms and laboratories, the writer wishes to emphasize the importance to history teaching of the material of a geographic nature and at the same time to give a limited amount of information relative to where such equipment can be secured. If any types of material have been omitted he would be glad to know of them. Perhaps they might be listed in a subsequent number of this magazine.



## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

### RECENT AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY

- Aaron Burr. A Biography Written, in Large Part, from Original and Hitherto Unused Material.* By Samuel H. Wandell and Meade Minnigerode. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1925. Two volumes. xxxiv, 324 pp.; ix, 354 pp.
- Brigham Young.* By M. R. Werner. Harcourt, Brace & Company, New York, 1925. xvi, 478 pp.
- Increase Mather. The Foremost American Puritan.* By Kenneth Ballard Murdock. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1925. xv, 442 pp.
- Cotton Mather. The Puritan Priest.* By Barrett Wendell. The Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1926. 321 pp.
- Life and Letters of Thomas Jefferson.* By Francis W. Hirst. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. xviii, 588 pp.
- Jefferson.* By Albert J. Nock. Harcourt, Brace & Company, New York, 1926. 340 pp.
- The Life of Stephen F. Austin, the Founder of Texas, 1793-1836.* By Eugene C. Barker. The Cokesbury Press, Dallas, 1925. xv, 551 pp.
- The Life and Letters of James Abram Garfield.* By Theodore Clarke Smith. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1925. Two volumes. ix, 1283 pp.
- The Life of Abraham Lincoln.* By William E. Barton. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1925. Two volumes. xvi, 517 pp.; 516 pp.

At no time in this age of biography—for such it certainly is—has there been such a prodigious outpouring of lives, letters and memoirs as during the past two or three years. Indeed, so great has been the flood of biographical literature in the field of American history alone that it has been almost impossible for either the historian or the busy general reader to keep abreast of it. By far the greater portion of this literature is of high calibre and sheds new light not only on the life story of the men and women it portrays, but upon the times in which they lived. Much of it will meet the test of the scientific historian who insists on something more than impressionistic generalizations. Much of it, too, though not all, represents a real effort to get at the truth of things, and while a spirit of sympathy pervades it, there is also an unmistakable atmosphere of fairness.

Of the biographies here reviewed, that of Aaron Burr is undoubtedly the most dramatic and the most fascinating. This is due partly to the fact that Burr stands out as one of the most interesting figures in all American history, and partly to the gifted Mr. Minnigerode, who, with master hand, has woven together the facts gathered through many years of laborious research by Mr. Wandell. Instead of a traitorous Burr, we have pictured a highly talented, a highly temperamental, and, above all, a highly ambitious man. The story of his childhood—he was the son of the Reverend Aaron Burr, President of the College of New Jersey (Princeton), and of the gentle Esther Edwards, daughter of Jonathan Edwards—his days at Princeton, from which he was graduated at sixteen, his ill-starred elopement, his military career, his political record, and his alleged conspiracy in the West are retold in the light of many new facts. No one who reads this biography can doubt that the authors have little use for either Hamilton or Jefferson. Both, in their opinion, persecuted Burr and did all they could to make him appear in the public eye as a scoundrel and a hypocrite. On the other hand, they do not try to cover up Burr's shortcomings—his vanity, his love of grandeur, his mania for control, his never-ending intrigue. Nowhere is their impartiality better illustrated than in the following:

"Colonel Burr was now in his forty-fourth year, he had lived a little more than half his life, he was approaching the brief climax of his career. One has seen him precocious, fearless, full of authority, endowed with the prudence of responsibility, a disciplinarian, a tactician, a leader; one has seen him devoted, affectionate, endlessly solicitous, and yet impetuously ill-tempered, fantastically exacting in his home, a taskmaster and a martinet; one has seen him so orderly, so abstemious, so industrious, and at the same time so improvident, so extravagant, so reckless; one has seen him gifted, fascinating, admired and successful; one has also seen him hated, despised and discarded.

"Because the gentleman was thought by many of his contemporaries to be a little too shrewd, a little too sharp, a little too slippery, he was always in debt, always evading, always contriving; one hesitated to accept his offers of bail; one preferred not to be his bondsman. There was lacking in him some essential principle of stability, some fundamental instinct of honesty, some necessary element of sincerity. He did not convince. He left one dubious, apprehensive, skeptical; one remembered things afterwards; one could never be quite sure. What did he really mean? What was he really thinking? What had he really done? So conscious of his honor, so confident of his character, so superior to suspicion—but still he inspired distrust, he aroused misgiving, he occasioned rumor. He invited slander and accumulated calumny. His name was weighted with connotations, his private behavior was a public scandal. His sails were trimmed to the winds of opportunity, he darkened the thresholds of lobbies, he was never absent at the fortunate moment. His integrity could be discussed. He was too much given to secrecy, too deeply engrossed in mystery, too great an adept at intrigue. His mind was too conversant with duplicity, too readily acquiescent to falsehood, too perfected in hypocrisy. His very generosity was too often only the impulse of a deceptive prodigality. Always in need of money, always in search of fame, he was never the sponsor of any cause except his own. Bereft of emotion, he was ruled by interest rather than conviction. Under the surface of a bewildering promise there lay hidden the shabbiness of a surpassingly deceitful nature."

M. R. Werner's *Brigham Young* is scarcely less brilliant than *Aaron Burr*. Not only does it relate the story of the great prophet of Mormonism, but of Mormonism itself and of its author and first proprietor, Jeremiah Smith, Jr. Mr. Werner makes no attempt to expose Mormonism. Rather he has concerned himself with showing how Mormonism originated and developed, how it affected the history of American expansion westward, and how it was influenced by, and in turn influenced, the personality of Brigham Young. In the past most of the chroniclers of Mormonism have been prone to stress its polygamous aspects at the expense of all else. Mr. Werner has built his story on broader foundations, for he shows that in last analyses Mormon Utah under Young was nothing less than a great socialistic theocracy. On the one hand the industrious poor were encouraged, while on the other speculator and profiteer were dealt with harshly. Supplies were purchased and produce sold on a co-operative basis, the profits going to the common good. Young was too shrewd a Yankee, however, as his biographer unmistakably shows, not to look out for his own private interests, and he died the possessor of an estate worth \$2,000,000. If a Hall of Fame were to be created for nineteenth century great Americans, there would, in the opinion of the

reviewer, be few who read this biography who would not vote a place to Brigham Young.

Of the two volumes on the Mathers, Dr. Murdock's is in many respects by far the most interesting and important. As a matter of fact, Professor Wendell's work on the younger Mather first appeared over thirty years ago (1891) and had long been out of print. It has now been reissued from the original plates and those who have not already read it will find it a clear and even vivid presentation of both Cotton Mather's life and a historical cross-section of Calvinistic New England. As far as scholarship and historical technique are concerned, the volume dealing with the elder Mather is well-nigh unimpeachable. Not only has the author done an enormous amount of research, but he has assembled his facts in judicious fashion. Every page is well written and here and there paragraphs are brilliantly done. Despite the formidable array of footnotes, it is not a drowsy book. After brief glimpses of the family background, the migration to America and Massachusetts pioneering, Dr. Murdock briefly traces the story of Increase's boyhood, his student days at Harvard, and his efforts to find himself in the world of affairs after college days were over. But it is with the latter years, when the great leader towered above most men of his generation, that his biographer is chiefly concerned. Whether acting in the capacity of Puritan divine, diplomat, college president, politician or man of letters, Dr. Murdock shows Increase Mather was never lacking in courage or zeal. While it can hardly be said that Dr. Murdock acts as an apologist for either Mather or Calvinism, he by no means accepts the interpretation respecting Puritanism expressed by Mr. James Truslow Adams in his excellent volume, *The Founding of New England*. Dr. Murdock, one gathers, opines that Puritanism was not nearly as narrow and as black as Mr. Adams depicts it. As to which is right, the reader must judge for himself. Certainly all who read Dr. Murdock's volume will agree that Increase Mather, whether theocratic despot or not, was a man of tremendous power and influence—a veritable human dynamo.

The two volumes on Jefferson here reviewed were, like Mr. Claude Bowers' *Jefferson and Hamilton*, penned by ardent admirers of Jefferson. Mr. Hirst, a distinguished Englishman who is well known on both sides of the Atlantic for his work in the field of economics and politics, tells us in his introduction that his purpose in bringing out another life of Jefferson was partly because of his admiration for the first great American champion of democracy, and partly "to correct some misapprehensions of Jefferson which are still current in popular histories..." In this connection he is especially disturbed by F. S. Oliver's *Alexander Hamilton* which, he says, is so inaccurate and misleading in its statements about Jefferson that he could not allow it to go unchallenged. Although Mr. Hirst has drawn his material largely from the vast storehouse of Jefferson's own writings and letters and frequently quotes them at length in his text, his portrayal is pretty much the conventional one. Perhaps the most striking and worth-while feature of the volume is the emphasis given to Jefferson's non-political activities; his two administrations as President, for example, get a bare sixty pages, while his attainments as an architect, scientist, philosopher and man of letters are stressed. His interpretations and conclusions are, on the whole, sound, though at times one feels that his perspective is a bit narrow, as in the chapter entitled "The Quarrel with Alexander Hamilton." For the reader who is appalled by footnotes and bibliographical paraphernalia, the volume will prove welcome, for both are lacking. Mr. Nock's portrayal of Jefferson differs in many respects from that of Mr. Hirst. In the first place, it is somewhat more sketchy and journalistic. Secondly, as a disciple of economic determinism, he has stressed that theory to the exclusion of practically all else in accounting for the majority of Jefferson's activities. And, thirdly, he gives less attention to the non-political side of Jefferson's career. On the other hand, there are some similarities between the two books. Both quote

freely from Jefferson, both are somewhat partisan to Jefferson, and both use Jefferson as a means of belittling his great contemporary, Alexander Hamilton. Perhaps not all students will agree with Mr. Nock's thesis that Jefferson was not the philosopher and thinker of that great popular movement which carried Jefferson into the Presidency. All will, in the opinion of the reviewer, agree that his book, though sketchy, biased, and lacking in completeness of fact, constitutes a valuable addition to our Jeffersonian literature.

Professor Barker's work admirably fills a long-felt gap in the historiography of the Southwest. The Austin family, perhaps more than any other, was responsible for the interest which Americans early manifested in the Texas region, and this book affords the reader ample opportunity not only to study the life of an adventurous pioneering family, but to get a pretty clear picture of an earlier phase of American imperialism. As might be expected, the book is scholarly and detached in point of view.

The two-volume life of James Abram Garfield is an unusually long narrative which not only traces in almost minute detail the story of one of America's national figures, but furnishes us with a vast amount of information about Civil War politics and management and about the political and legislative aspects of the turbulent period of reconstruction. Professor Smith was most fortunate in having a wealth of collected material on which to draw, for when Garfield died in 1881 all his official papers, his letterbooks and letters, newspaper clippings concerning him, his manuscript journals, in fact everything he had ever written as well as much that had been written about him, were systematically organized, classified, bound in volumes and indexed. All these were placed at Professor Smith's disposal by the Garfield family and have been very freely quoted in the work under review. In fact, Professor Smith tells us in his prefatory note that so far as possible Garfield's life has been told in Garfield's "own words through extracts from letters, journals, reminiscences and speeches." From this statement we should not conclude that this biography is nothing more than a collection of excerpts and quotations. Throughout the work Professor Smith, without glamour or excess rhetoric, has deftly woven his facts together, and in so doing has candidly expressed his opinion.

The first volume tells the story of Garfield's life from his birth on a secluded farm on the Western Reserve in 1831, to the year 1877, when he served on the Electoral Commission which decided the famous Hayes-Tilden Presidential contest. The second volume carries the story from 1877, when Garfield became minority leader in the House of Representatives, to his tragic end at Elberon, New Jersey. While sympathetic, Professor Smith makes no attempt to elevate Garfield to that lofty realm of heroes who exist only in the minds of men. Rather, he pictures the career of a courageous, kindly, unselfish, open-minded man who looked ever forward and never backward. While the chapters dealing with his political and military activities will undoubtedly prove most worth while to the student of politics and legislation, those devoted to his days at Williams College, when that institution was under the guidance of Mark Hopkins, and to his educational ideas and the law give the reader a clearer perspective of the type of man Garfield was. Despite his ever increasing duties, he was always deeply interested in Williams. In a letter written in 1872, concerning what should be done to promote its welfare, he maintained that it should first continue to remain as a college and neither try to become a university or adopt university plans, and, second, that the "chief efforts made in its behalf shall be directed not so much to halls and buildings as to an increased endowment, for paying professors, for making tuition as nearly free as possible and for putting the cost of living within the reach of students whose means of support are most slender. So long as Williams College can offer salaries which will command and retain the very best teaching talent of the country, she will offer a far greater attraction to thoughtful and ambitious students than any splen-

dor of her architecture or richness of her cabinets and libraries." This biography deserves to be widely read.

Dr. Barton's two volumes on Lincoln are dedicated to President Coolidge, whom he likens to Lincoln as "a man of the people and a leader of the nation." In them the story of Lincoln's life is retold with here and there new emphasis based on new information which has come to hand. By recourse to tax, court and church records, for example, he shows that Lincoln's father, instead of being "abjectly poor," was a sober, honest, respectable man. He also doubts the long prevalent story that Ann Rutledge was Lincoln's only love, or that Lincoln kept his would-be bride waiting, or that Lincoln and his wife were unhappy. On the contrary, he maintains that Mrs. Lincoln spurred Lincoln on to the Presidency, that she was proud of him, helped him, and suffered with him when he was the target of unjust attacks. Instead of a man unskilled in the ways of the politician, he depicts Lincoln, when nominated for the Presidency, as an astute politician, owner of a newspaper, shrewd and far-sighted in his speeches and comments, and more than a match for his political contemporaries. Lincoln himself is allowed to speak freely in both volumes and many original documents are listed in the appendices. While the work as a whole does not give as clear-cut a portrayal of Lincoln and falls far short of Stephenson's Lincoln in literary style, it does furnish us with additional facts and new points of view. No student of Lincoln can afford to ignore it.

C.

*Thirty Years of Modern History.* By William Kay Wallace. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. 293 pp.

In this new volume, Mr. Wallace covers the period since the fall of Bismarck, the point at which he ended his earlier work, *The Trend of History*. But the motif is that of his more recent book, *The Passing of Politics*. His main thesis is that economic factors are rapidly displacing political factors as the determinants of public affairs, that the "Nation State," a political institution, is declining in power and has been given a mortal blow by the World War, and that in its place are arising certain industrial institutions based upon a combination of capital, industrial skill and labor.

Mr. Wallace does not pretend to uncover any new material on the history of the last thirty years. Rather, he has given an interpretation of facts already well known, and he presupposes in the reader a general knowledge of contemporary history. In the latter part of the work, Book III, the author is very stimulating. His treatment of post-war conditions,—of Fascism and of Bolshevism, of the reconstruction of Europe by economic factors functioning to a great extent independently of the state—is not only suggestive but convincing. In fact, he seems to be a far better prophet than historian.

In the latter capacity, Mr. Wallace is far too apt to simplify a situation to fit in with his preconceived ideas. It is difficult to quarrel with his main contention that economic factors are playing an ever more important role in our western civilization and that consequently purely political factors are destined to become ever less significant. But it is problematical whether the state and nationalism are about to go into a quick decline. In interpreting the new trends in history, Mr. Wallace makes a contrast between the old system which he conceives of as political in character and based upon a rational philosophy, and the new system which is economic in character and is based upon a volitional philosophy. While the contrast and the identification are helpful, he exaggerates and distorts the facts to make them fit his conceptions. The importance of economic factors was recognized by Colbert and Richard Cobden long before the days of Joseph Chamberlain (p. 144), and there were surely many statesmen before William II, who acted on a volitional philosophy; for example, Palmerston and Napoleon I. In fact, Mr. Wallace is at his best where

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he refrains from philosophical implications in history, as, for instance, in his chapter on the United States.

In treating of diplomatic history prior to the World War, Mr. Wallace is often misleading. He infers that France had in mind the crushing of Germany from the moment when she entered into friendly relations with Russia (p. 37). He believes that French foreign policy after 1875 was directed consistently toward the construction of a series of alliances against Germany (pp. 37, 41, 42, 49), and states that her colonial empire was a secondary consideration (pp. 41, 42, 49), whereas in fact it was a primary consideration all through the period when Ferry and Hanotaux controlled French diplomacy. Nor can the reviewer agree with Mr. Wallace that the World War was inevitable (pp. 49, 162); on the contrary, war was averted time and again in the decade before 1914, and might have been averted at that fateful crisis and indefinitely in the future.

Mr. Wallace shows himself friendly to capitalism and Fascism. He prophesies co-operation between capitalist and laborer (p. 116), but one wonders whether it is not the co-operation of landlord and serf, for he admits that the trade unions are declining, and that capital seems to be gaining power (p. 254). He is a foe to socialism, and infers that capitalism has already accomplished all the justifiable aims of socialism. But can one forget that the primary aim of socialism is not "a wide diffusion of ownership," or "the abolition of competition" (pp. 255, 256), but rather a society where men are substantially equal, a society fundamentally foreign to the triumph of modern capitalism or Fascism?

JOHN G. GAZLEY.

Dartmouth College.

*Foreign Policies of the United States.* By James Quayle Dealey. Ginn and Co., Boston, 1926. viii, 402 pp.

This is a book that should find a place in college courses in American diplomacy. It is written by an eminent political scientist and sociologist, and, as one finds with pleasure, the emphasis is from these angles. A glance at the table of contents will show the uniqueness of its conception. The book is divided into two parts. Part I (pages 3-130) deals with "Bases and Agencies," and consists of eight chapters, as follows: 1. National policies, 2. Territorial expansion of the United States, 3. Geographic and climatic conditions, 4. Natural resources and economic conditions, 5. Racial factors and immigration, 6. Formulation of policies through government, 7. Sea power and the navy in diplomacy, and 8. Political and social idealism. Part II (pages 131-371), "Development of Political Policies," consists of fifteen chapters summarizing American diplomacy from 1776 to 1925 (in chapter 9), sketching policies by periods (in chapters 10 to 13, inclusive), dealing with specific problems in the western hemisphere (chapters 14, 15, 16, 21), specific problems in the Pacific and Far East (chapters 17, 18, 22), and specific problems in Europe (chapters 19 and 20). The last chapter (23) on "Trend in national policies" attempts to summarize and forecast, in a measure, the future relations of the United States.

Because the work is philosophical in nature and sketchy in content there are many omissions. For this reason the book might well be used in parallel with such texts as Fish, *American Diplomacy*, and Adams, *History of the Foreign Policy of the United States*. The bibliography (pages 373 to 381), though brief, is well chosen. The index (pages 383-402) is detailed, but has striking omissions. Footnotes are scattered and not profuse. There are three maps of considerable value.

On the whole, the volume is well written, interesting and refreshing. It has the added value of being "up to the minute." And the reviewer can do no more than to recommend it to the thoughtful reading public and students.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

*The American Revolution Considered as a Social Movement.* By J. Franklin Jameson. Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1926. 158 pp.

*Loyalism in Virginia. Chapters in the Economic History of the Revolution.* By Isaac Samuel Harrell. Duke University Press, Durham, North Carolina, 1926. vii, 203 pp.

These two little volumes constitute a valuable addition to the constantly growing literature dealing with the social and economic aspects of the American Revolution.

The material in Dr. Jameson's volume was originally given as a series of lectures at Princeton University on the Louis Clark Vanuxem Foundation in 1925, and its appearance in book form, as the publishers well point out, fittingly marked the one hundred and fiftieth year of American Independence. Until recently the American Revolution has been viewed in somewhat narrow fashion. Historians and publicists treating it in heightened nationalistic fashion and stressing its political aspects to the exclusion of all else. It is just this point of view that Dr. Jameson seeks to correct. He would have us—whether academical or general reader—see the Revolution in its broader aspects, and it was to this end that the lectures were prepared.

First of all he discusses the effect of the Revolution on the status of persons, showing that it profoundly altered the political, social and economic life of the majority of the Americans. Secondly, he sketches in broad outline the influence of the Revolution on land ownership—the disappearance of the royal restrictions on the acquisition and use of land, the passage of ultimate title of all lands from the Crown to the States, the abolition of quit-rents, the confiscation of the Tory Estates, the rise of State-boundary disputes, and the effect of the transference of the trans-Allegheny West to the central government on the movement of population westward. Thirdly, he shows the various ways in which the Revolution affected American industry and commerce. Finally, he summarizes some of the more outstanding effects of the movement on American thought and feelings. While Dr. Jameson makes no pretense of having exhaustively treated the topics discussed, he has done enough to whet the appetite of any person of inquiring mind who is anxious to dig beneath the surface of political and military events. Indeed, no one can read this most stimulating book without realizing that the American Revolution, as frequently pictured, has been a misrepresented and one-sided portrayal.

Professor Harrell's monograph, as the title implies, is a study in economic determinism in Virginia during the Revolutionary era. While fully cognizant of the fact that various motives other than economic were in part responsible for the alignment of the people of Virginia into two fairly distinct and opposing groups, patriots and loyalists, he shows conclusively that the economic factors were at all times powerfully influential. The agrarians, many of them head over heels in debt to British merchants, always anxious for paper money and inflation and ever in quest of cheap and fertile lands to replace their partially or completely worn-out acres, formed the bulk of the patriot group. For them a successful revolution and complete independence loomed as a cure-all for their indebtedness to the British merchant and for such obnoxious British edicts as the Proclamation of 1763 and the Currency Act of 1764. The commercial interests of the towns, particularly Norfolk, constituted the backbone of the loyalists. Their prosperity depended in large measure on a continuance of the mercantile system. They were not particularly interested in western lands and were opposed to paper money and non-payment of debts. Professor Harrell shows how, as a result of civil war between the patriots and loyalists, the latter not only suffered defeat, but the sequestration and sale of their properties. He also summarizes the economic reasons why at the close of the Revolution agricultural Virginia was indignant when it learned that the treaty of 1783 required American debtors to settle debts incurred prior to the war and placed moral obligations on the several states to restore loyalist property.

Finally, he shows that the opposition in Virginia to the adoption of the Federal Constitution was not only economic in origin but an out-and-out expression of agrarian fear that the commercial North, which would dominate the new Central Government, would enforce the hated provisions of the Treaty of 1783.

It is to be hoped that Professor Harrell will expand his researches to include the other southern states along the lines which he has pursued in this admirable volume.

C.

*Modern World History: 1776-1926.* By A. C. Flick. Knopf, New York, 1926. xxviii, 734 pp.

To summarize a century and a half of world history in a single volume of this size is in itself an achievement, and it is well done here. There are some errors and some repetitions. The volume is not all by one hand and shows it. From time to time blocks of sheer information check the development of the main thesis or escape it altogether. These faults, however, do not destroy the value of Dr. Flick's book, a value deriving chiefly from the remarkable breadth of the subject-matter incorporated in it. Perhaps it can best be described by comparison with Fueter's *World History: 1815-1920* and Hayes' second volume of modern European history. It contains vastly more and much more varied information than the former and, therefore, is less simple and forcible in its thesis and lacks equal unity. Ignoring the first forty years which are dealt with in Hayes' first volume and allowing for slight differences in selection of material, it seems about as specifically informative as Hayes' second volume, but the difficult task of giving cogency seems rather less well performed. On the other hand, there are a few chapters, e. g., "Turkey and the Balkan States, 1815-1914," which are more ambitious and successful than is usual in textbooks.

The author describes his volume as "A Survey of the Origins and Development of Contemporary Civilization" and in the earlier chapters he is able to preserve the tone of *Kulturgeschichte*, but the appalling mass of historical event during the next century almost obliterates it again until the effective closing chapters of general cultural description and evaluation. This brings up the question of the aims and scope of the Borzoi Historical Series, of which this is the first volume. It would appear that the battle between information and interpretation still rages as fiercely as ever. Perhaps a historian who is scholar, poet, and philosopher in one may win an occasional victory by uniting facts and synthesis humanely. For most historians today, however, there seem to be only alternatives. They may either assemble the facts in print or through footnote reference, for limited periods, and submit an interpretation; or write longer synthesis only slightly weighted with event, for a public which knows the facts or will investigate them in accredited monographs. Another way out is that of the Continental scholars in their many-volumed series. The American public, and even American students, find these too large, too encyclopaedic, and the synthesis very elusive, except, perhaps, to the patient reader of the whole series. Doctor Flick's book is partly an attractive interpretation where he assumes that his readers know the facts (notably in his writing about the United States), partly a massive marshalling of evidence, and partly a compromise between the two—this rather than a single unified compromise.

It is suggested, therefore, that it is fairer to consider the book independently of the editorial introductions to it and to the series. In them Professor H. E. Barnes leads the reader to expect distinctly more than he will get, and it seems a doubtful service to the author. Not many men would be comfortable to have it said about their books that "the diplomatic history of Europe from 1870-1912 is presented more thoroughly and more profoundly than in any comparable textbook," or "this volume offers the first adequate survey of the history of the Balkan States and Turkey which has been written by a scholar who is a specialist in the history of this area." Such statements are clearly matters of opinion and will be regarded, at least

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outside the United States, as of doubtful taste. Moreover, it is distinctly more equitable to allow an author to meet his public on the merits of his own work and to leave it to the publishers to lure the public if they can.

The chapter on the origins of the World War is by Professor Barnes and summarizes the conclusions of his recent monograph.

BARTLET BREBNER.

Columbia University.

*China and the West—A Sketch of Their Intercourse.* By W. E. Soothill. Oxford University Press, London, 1925. 200 pp., appendix, map. \$3.50.

*Chinese Political Philosophy.* By William S. A. Pott. Alfred A. Knopf, 1925. 108 pp. \$1.50.

*An Outline History of China.* By Herbert H. Gowen and Josef Washington Hall. D. Appleton and Co., New York and London, 1926. xxiv, 511 pp., bibliography and map. \$4.00.

Divergent as are the details with which these three volumes deal, all have a common basis in what we may call, in the words of the title of the first, China and the West. Pott has introduced his account of Chinese political philosophy with a comparative study of China at the time of Confucius and Greece at the time of Socrates, and throughout his work constantly refers to the contrast which he finds between the Confucian "habitual appeal to the principle of authority" and the Socratic "habitual appeal to the principle of reason." Gowen and Hall have divided their work into two sections and the second, bearing the title "The Republican Era," and almost as lengthy as the first, is primarily an account of the extensive psychological adjustment which has been in process these last fifteen years between the new "republic" of China and the hitherto dominant great powers of the West.

Soothill, in his first fifty pages, has provided a brief but well written account of China's relations with western countries beyond her own immediate borders of empire from the time when Chang Ch'ien reached Bokhara and first heard of the Romans about 138 B. C. to the opening of the sea route between China and Europe and the advent of the English at Canton early in the seventeenth century. The remainder of his volume is divided between a fairly comprehensive sketch of foreign relations, English predominantly, from that date to the present, and four final chapters, composed of history and preaching alike, and entitled: Reform; Reaction; Revolution, Republic, Ruin, and Renaissance; and East and West. The substance of the volume was first delivered as a series of lectures to Oxford missionary students, and the author regrets in his preface that he has not had time to do more than print the lectures as they were originally given. Lack of time, it is to be concluded, is also responsible for the inclusion of a map upon which none of the routes of which Soothill speaks are traced, and from which are omitted many of the towns and cities to which reference is made in the text. *China and the West* is not without value, especially in its account of early relations, but it falls far short of what might have been expected, both from its comprehensive title and from its author. The subject is one upon which a volume such as Soothill proposes is badly needed.

Pott offers a scholarly and well-ordered consideration of his subject under the chapter headings: Mentality of Confucian China; Confucian Ethical Ideal; Confucian Political Ideal; and the Canon of Reason and Virtue (Lao-tse and Taoism), with a final section containing selections from the four books of Confucius and from Lao Tzu's classic. Pott's viewpoint and purpose may be gathered from a quotation at the beginning of his chapter on the Mentality of Confucian China: "Through multitudes of non-reflective channels, general ideas infiltrate into our habits of imagination and behavior, mould our minds, and furnish them with a bent that powerfully determines the direction of our future reflective activity. This habitual bent of mind of a people, this spiritual posture, is what we mean by its mentality. And it is obvious that if the mentality of a people is thus distilled from what appears to be a dead or distant past,

some knowledge of that peoples' history and traditions must condition our appreciation of the distillate." Such a knowledge of China's history and tradition Pott succeeds in giving. The result is readable, convincing, and valuable. The volume is the first of an announced series of "Political Science Classics" to be published by Knopf under the general editorship of Professor Lindsay Rogers.

Gowen and Hall's *Outline History of China* in its first part, Chinese history up to 1911, is a carefully written and much improved revision of Gowen's *Outline History of China*, published some years ago. The material which is presented is well related and attention is paid to economic, social, and literary developments. The second section treats in a similar but necessarily more journalistic fashion the story of the last fifteen years. There are such provocative chapter headings as: The Rise of Nationalism; the "New Tide"; China Among the Nations; The Era of Military Adventuring; and Toward the End of Foreign Prerogative, and if the matter with which each chapter deals must be considered still open to varied interpretations and diverse conclusions, it may at least be added that Gowen and Hall have at all times passed judgment within reason and that the present active situation in China appears more than likely to make many of their conclusions accomplished facts. The volume is prepared especially for classroom use and should serve this purpose well. An excellent map, prepared in 1922 by the Department of State at Washington, is reproduced.

WILBUR L. WILLIAMS.

Columbia University.

## Book Notes

*Old Mission Churches and Historic Houses of California*, by Rexford Newcomb, is a handsome and richly illustrated volume with excellent descriptive and narrative text. The author undertakes to cover the history, art, architecture and lore associated with these historic structures. He declares that "It will be our pleasant task, first of all, to learn briefly of the land where the Missions were built.... We shall recall the historic backgrounds and seek out an understanding of the life of these colonies of New Spain, the life of the soldier and settler as well as that of the ecclesiastic. Moreover, we shall trace the style of architecture back to its precedents in Old Spain, and learn how this distinct and separate colonial variant is related to the larger family of the Spanish Renaissance." The author, who is professor of history and architecture at the University of Illinois, has, on the whole, done his work very competently after thirteen years of special study including six years of field work. The chief criticism that might be made of the book is that it attempts to do too many things within a moderate space limit, yet it does stand out among the many books on the same subject because of its scholarly thoroughness, critical judgment and discriminating enthusiasm. Professor Newcomb strongly admires Spanish colonial architecture and thinks that its styles might, with great advantage, be followed in our southernmost line of states from Florida to California. The book is notable for its fine form, being printed throughout on cameo paper, bound in handsome buckram stamped in gold and illustrated with nearly 250 pictures, including a frontispiece in colors. (J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1925. 379 pp. \$15.00.)

*American Social History*, as recorded by British travelers, is a valuable collection of readings brought together and edited by Allan Nevins (Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1923. 577 pp. \$4.00.). Mr. Nevins set himself the task of selecting characteristic and interesting passages from twenty-five or thirty of the British travelers whose writings were most likely to prove interesting and instructive. These he has arranged in such a way as to present pictures of the development of American society from 1789-1922. The extracts, which are extended enough to avoid scrappiness, are drawn in part from such important writers as William Cobbett, Mrs. Trollope, Harriet Martineau, Herbert Spencer, Matthew Arnold and Lord Bryce;



others are drawn from less familiar writers, but most of the passages are not familiar to the ordinary reader and even the works of the well-known writers are in many cases out of print, especially for the period before the Civil War. The extracts are grouped in four divisions, the dividing dates being 1825, 1845, and 1870. In each case, the editor contributes an illuminating chapter, analyzing the point of view and special interests of the writers for that period and explaining their attitudes, often with brief quotations. He contributes other editorial notes as well, all very competent and to the point. An excellent bibliography, the most extensive on the subject, is included. The book is not only very entertaining, but exceptionally valuable for history students and teachers either in college or high school.

*A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, by H. W. Fowler, is as interesting and valuable as it is novel. It is entirely different from the ordinary dictionary, devoting itself to questions of usage with reference to meaning, spelling and pronunciation. It combines in part the advantages of a dictionary with those of good handbooks on speech and composition. At the same time, Mr. Fowler, who is one of the learned editors of the Oxford Dictionary, introduces a personal touch, clever and humorous, that is only too rare in books of reference. The result is a volume that is not only very useful but decidedly entertaining to anyone interested in language or in effective speech and writing (Oxford University Press, New York, 1926. 742 pp. \$3.00.).

Few, if any, studies in the field of economic history surpass in excellence Arthur Harrison Cole's *The American Wool Manufacture* (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1926. Two volumes. xix, 392 pp.; vii, 328 pp.). He has covered practically every significant feature in the development of the American woolen industry from early colonial days to the present. Volume I is divided into three parts. In part one he sketches in considerable detail the character and methods of wool-cloth manufacture in colonial times, the spread of the household system and the policy of the colonial and home governments in respect to the industry. In part two, labeled *The Era of the Early Factory*, he traces the introduction of new techniques, the rise of the factory system and the expansion of the domestic market. The nine chapters of part three show how the industry developed between 1830 and 1870. It was during this period that the factory method of wool production matured and that the tendency toward large scale production began. The author also shows that during these same years the industry was still far from standardized and was handicapped by numerous obstacles. By far the greater portion of Volume II is devoted to the outstanding features of the industry of the present day—technical advance and internal development, the tariff, importation, sources of raw material, changes in marketing, specialization and concentration are among the topics discussed. The second volume also contains a critical summary, as well as four appendices, one of which is a bibliography. The value of the work is greatly enhanced by the inclusion of numerous plates and graphic representations. Everyone interested in economic history will commend Professor Cole for this scholarly and illuminating study.

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Amidst the flood of printed material gushing from the presses each year there seems to be an increasing volume of introductions, surveys, and textbooks. In the latter category falls a number of compilations of facts, which are likely to evoke the question: Why were they written? In his *Europe in the Middle Ages* (Oxford University Press, New York, 1926. viii, 391 pp. \$1.50.), Ierne L. Plunket, M.A. Oxon., has merely retold the story in the old way. Judging from the point of view in the narrative and in the sketchy list of "authorities" in the bibliography, the book could as well have been written twenty-five years ago. The author gives one little notion of such movements as the growth of the medieval towns, accompanied by the development of the middle class and the decline of feudalism. Nor does he make any attempt to show the interrelation of the medieval and the modern ages. The volume is provided with a chronological summary for the years 476 to 1494, genealogical tables of twelve ruling houses, and a fine collection of fifty-six illustrations.—C. L. L.

Professor Penfield Roberts, of the Department of English and History in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has given us a very interesting and readable little book called *An Introduction to American Politics* (Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1926. 216 pp.).

The book is divided into three parts. The first hundred pages, called "How the United States is Actually Governed," deals only with the national government, but it is certainly an excellent brief treatment of that government in its practical operations. Part two deals with "Current Problems and Proposed Solutions," including such problems as public opinion, the conservatives and radicals, economic issues, and the United States as a world power. The author has summed up some of these questions with remarkable brevity and clarity. In many ways this is the most penetrating part of the book. Part three, comprising three very brief chapters on historical, economic and psychological interpretation of politics, is somewhat sketchy.

The whole, however, is a really sprightly little volume with far more good sense and sound thinking than many books of two or three times its size. Besides which, the book has a charming readableness that would alone make it unique.—J. McGOLDRICK.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION AND UNIVERSITY  
OF PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOLMEN'S WEEK  
PHILADELPHIA, MARCH 31, APRIL 1  
AND 2, 1927

The Preliminary Report of the Program on History and the Social Studies for Schoolmen's Week in Co-operation With the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, is as follows:

Thursday, March 31, 4.00 P. M.

Professor Melchior, Chairman. Professor Edgar Dawson: The Report of the Committee of the American Historical Association on History and the Social Studies. (The detailed program not entirely complete.) Dr. Conyers Read: The Claims of History and the American Historical Association.

Friday, April 1, 3.00 P. M.

Professor William E. Lingelbach (Chairman): The Control of Foreign Affairs, European Conditions and Problems. Professor Hugo Wendel: The Menace of the Mediterranean. William C. White: Soviet Russia. Dr. Conyers Read: The Claims of History and the American Historical Association.

8.15 P. M.—Foreign Relations with Latin America. Professor William R. Shepherd: Our Relations With Central America and Mexico. Professor Harry T. Collings: Foreign Investments in Latin America. Discussion.

Saturday, April 2, 8.00 A. M.

Middle States and Maryland History Teachers Association Breakfast followed by the Business Meeting at 8.45 A. M.

10.00 A. M.—The New Course on World History. Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill, Professor A. C. Flick, and others.

1.30 P. M.—Historic Pilgrimage to Doylestown by Motor Bus. Charge, \$1.25. Buses will leave headquarters at the Hotel Pennsylvania, proceeding through Fairmount Park and the Wissahickon along Old York Road to Willow Grove and the Easton Highway to Doylestown. Competent guides will direct the party through the unique Historical Museum and the Old Inn, with its remarkable collection of antiques. Return trip to Philadelphia at 5.00 P. M. Committee on Arrangements: Miss Jessie C. Evans, Professor R. W. Kelsey.

## Correction

The reference to the publications of the Brown-Robertson Company, which appeared on pages 67 and 81 of the February number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, contained several errors. The present address is Brown-Robertson Company, 8 East 49th Street, New York City; the miniature books on perforated gummed backs have been discontinued. This firm also issues a number of other publications of value to teachers in schools and colleges.

Messrs. Underwood and Underwood, in their Washington Office, at 1230 Connecticut Avenue, maintain a large newspaper photographic organization as well as a commercial department and studios for the making of portraits for persons of eminence. Selections from their pictures, if desired in quantities, may be obtained at very low prices.

EDITOR.

## Correspondence

EDITOR, *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*:

Dr. James A. Robertson, Editor of the *Hispanic American Historical Review*, has appointed me to take charge of a survey of the investigations in the Hispanic American History field engaged in by teachers and graduate students in the departments of history, political science, economics, and geography. The results of the survey are to be printed in the above-named Review. The aims of the survey are to show the interest and activity of investigators in the field, to prevent duplicated effort, and to enhance co-operation.

I shall appreciate any suggestions and information which you can give to me. I should also be pleased if you could give brief space in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* announcing this survey, mentioning that blanks are to be sent to all concerned, and calling for volunteer information which may be sent to me at the above address.

Cordially yours,

A. CURTIS WILGUS,

Associate Professor of History.

University of South Carolina, Columbia, S. C.

## Books on History and Government published in the United States from December 25, 1926, to January 29, 1927.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

Bemis, Samuel F. Pinckney's Treaty; a study of America's advantage from Europe's distress, 1783-1800. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 433 pp. (9 p. bibl.). \$3.00.

French, Allen, editor. A British fusilier in revolutionary Boston, being the diary of Lieut. Frederick Mackenzie, Jan. 5-April 30, 1775. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 94 pp. \$3.50.

Hufeland, Otto. Westchester County [N. Y.] during the American Revolution, 1775-1783. White Plains, N. Y.: Westchester Co. Hist. Soc. 501 pp. (6 p. bibl.). \$7.50.

Independence Square Neighborhood (The) historical notes. Phila.: Penn Mutual Life Ins. Co., Independence Square. 155 pp.

Long, Charles A. E. Matinicus Isle [Me.]; its story and its people. Lewiston, Me.: Lewiston Journal. 248 pp. \$5.00.

- May, Ralph. Early Portsmouth [N. H.] history. Boston: C. E. Goodspeed & Co. 285 pp. (13 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Monroe, W. S., and Herriott, M. E. Objectives of United States history in grades seven and eight. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 68 pp. 30c.
- Schrabisch, Max. Aboriginal rock shelters. Wilkes-Barre, Pa.: Wyoming Hist. and Geological Soc. 186 pp. \$2.00.
- Shryock, Richard H. Georgia and the Union in 1850. Durham, N. C.: Duke Univ. Press. 414 pp. (25 p. bibl.). \$4.50.
- Smith, Walter B. Indian remains of the Penobscot Valley and their significance. Orono, Me.: Univ. of Me. Press. 90 pp.
- Studies in American History. Inscribed to [J. A. Woodburn...by his former students]. Bloomington, Ind.: Indian Univ. 464 pp. \$1.00.

## ANCIENT HISTORY

- Gann, Thomas. Ancient cities and modern tribes. [Explorations among the relics of the Maya Indians.] N. Y.: Scribner. 256 pp. \$5.00.
- Grenier, Albert. The Roman spirit in religion, thought, and art. N. Y.: Knopf. 423 pp. \$6.00.
- Gulick, Charles B. Modern traits in old Greek life. N. Y.: Longmans. 166 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$1.75.
- Knarringa, Dr. H. Emporos: data on trade and trader in Greek literature from Homer to Aristotle. N. Y.: G. E. Stechert. 144 pp. \$1.60.
- Rose, Herbert J. Primitive culture in Italy. N. Y.: Doran. 262 pp. \$2.50.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

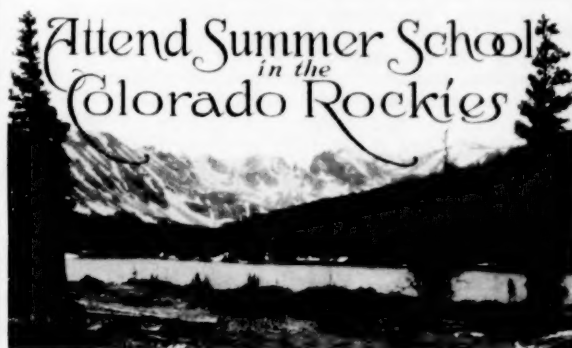
- Albion, Robert G. Forests and sea power; the timber problem of the Royal navy, 1652-1862. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 500 pp. \$5.00.
- Besant, Annie W. India bond or free? A world problem. N. Y.: Putnam. 216 pp. \$2.50.
- Birkenhead, Frederick E. S., Viscount. Famous trials of history. N. Y.: Doran. 319 pp. \$4.00.
- Bracq, Jean C. The evolution of French Canada. N. Y.: Macmillan. 474 pp. \$3.25.
- Castro, J. Paul de. The Gordon riots. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 296 pp. \$6.50.
- Davies, R. Trevor, editor. Documents illustrating the history of civilization in medieval England (1066-1500). N. Y.: Dutton. 423 pp. \$3.25.
- George, M. D. English social life in the eighteenth century, pt. I. N. Y.: Macmillan. 70 pp. 55c.
- Rout, Ettie A. Maori symbolism, from evidence of Hohena Te Rake. [Account of New Zealand Maoris.] N. Y.: Harcourt. 354 pp. \$6.00.
- Salzman, L. F. English life in the Middle Ages. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 288 pp. \$3.50.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Bradby, E. D. A short history of the French Revolution, 1789-1795. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 388 pp. \$3.00.
- Coulomb, C. A., McKinley, A. E., and White, H. What Europe gave to America. [A textbook for sixth and seventh grades.] N. Y.: Scribner. 386 pp. \$1.20.
- Gibbons, Herbert A. The Europe of today. Chicago: Am. Lib. Assn. 27 pp. 35c.
- Philpps, Col. R. W. The armies of the first French republic and the rise of the Marshals of Napoleon 1st. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 386 pp. \$6.00.
- Schnee, Dr. Heinrich. German colonization, past and future; the truth about the German colonies. N. Y.: Knopf. 176 pp. \$3.00.
- Stickney, Edith P. Southern Albania in European affairs, 1912-1923. Stanford Univ., Cal.: Stanford Univ. Press. 195 pp. \$2.50.

## MEDIEVAL HISTORY

- Crump, C. G., and Jacob, E. F., editors. The legacy of the Middle Ages. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 562 pp. \$3.50.



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- Committee on Handbook of the Conference of Historical Societies. Handbook of American Historical Societies. Wash., D. C.: Am. Historical Assn., 1140 Woodward Bldg. 81 pp. \$1.00.
- McLaughlin, Robert W. The spiritual element in history. N. Y.: Abingdon Press. 312 pp. \$2.50.
- Steiger, G. N., and others. A history of the Orient. Boston: Ginn & Co. 478 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$1.96.
- Vasconcelos, José, and Gamio, Manuel. Aspects of Mexican civilization. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. Press. 202 pp. \$2.00.

## BIOGRAPHY

- Hutton, William H. Thomas Becket, archbishop of Canterbury. N. Y.: Macmillan. 322 pp. \$3.50.
- Bodley, Temple. George Rogers Clark, his life and public services. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 444 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Grant, W. L., editor. The makers of Canada, 12 vols. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. \$75.00.
- Jenkins, Charles F. Button Gwinnett, signer of the Declaration of Independence. N. Y.: Garden City: Doubleday, Page. 312 pp. \$10.00.
- Goebel, Dorothy B. William Henry Harrison; a political biography. Indianapolis: Indiana Hist. Bureau. 467 pp. (40 p. bibl.). \$1.50.
- Lamar, Clarinda P. The life of Joseph R. Lamar, 1857-1916. N. Y.: Putnam. 291 pp. \$3.00.
- Ludwig, Louis. Napoleon. N. Y.: Liveright. 719 pp. \$5.00.
- Corbett-Smith, A. Nelson, the man. Boston: Little, Brown. 387 pp. \$2.50.
- Estill, Eugenia. James Oglethorpe in England and Georgia. Charleston, S. C.: Charleston Pr. & Pub. Co. 150 pp. \$1.75.
- Wharton, Clarence R. El Presidente; a sketch of the life of General Santa Anna. Austin, Tex.: Gammel's Bk. Store. 201 pp. \$2.00.
- Workman, Herbert B. John Wyclif; a study of the English medieval church; 2 vols. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 382, 448 pp. \$12.50.
- Wallace, William S., compiler. The dictionary of Canadian biography. N. Y.: Macmillan. 437 pp. \$15.00.

## GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Aymar, Francis W. Problems in positive international law. N. Y.: Author, 36 W. 44th St. 336 pp. \$5.00.
- Brinkmann, Carl. Recent theories of citizenship in its relation to government. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 126 pp. \$1.50.
- Conference Committee on the Merit system. The merit system in government. N. Y.: Natl. Municipal League. 170 pp. \$1.50.
- Fenn, Percy T., Jr. The origin of the right of fishing in territorial waters. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. 260 pp. \$4.00.
- Harley, John E. Selected documents and material for the study of international law and relations; rev. and enlarged edition. Los Angeles: Times-Mirror Press. 444 pp. \$4.00.
- King, Clyde L., editor. The United States in relation to the European situation. Phila.: Am. Acad. of Pol. and Social Science. 183 pp. \$2.00.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

## GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- The State and Modern Democracy. G. W. Thomson (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Grouping of Nations. Archibald C. Coolidge (*Foreign Affairs*, January).
- The Writing of Nineteenth Century History. Kingsley Martin (*Edinburgh Review*, January).
- Some Historical Geographies. J. E. Morris (*History*, January).
- Geography and Military History. Capt. R. J. Wilkinson (*Army Quarterly*, January).
- The Rise and Development of Economic History. N. S. B. Gras (*Economic History Review*, January).
- The Place of Economic History in University Studies. Sir William Ashley (*Economic History Review*, January).
- A Neglected Aspect of the Relations between Economic and Legal History. W. S. Holdsworth (*Economic History Review*, January).
- The Imperial Idea in the History of Europe. Louis Eisenmann (*Slavonic Review*, December).
- Greek Religion. F. Melian Stawell (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Polish Emigrants in France. S. Gargas (*Slavonic Review*, December).
- Recent Work in French Economic History, 1905-1925. Henri Sée (*Economic History Review*, January).
- Dictatorship in Spain. R. T. Desmond (*Foreign Affairs*, January).
- Italian Colonial Expansion. E. W. Polson Newman (*Contemporary Review*, January).
- The Origins and Spirit of Fascism. Luigi Villari (*Edinburgh Review*, January).
- Syria. R. Gordon Canning (*Contemporary Review*, January).
- Mustapha Kemal and the New Turkey. Dudley Heathcote (*Fortnightly Review*, January).
- Bolshevik Romance and Reality. Victor Chernov (*Foreign Affairs*, January).
- Soviet Foreign Policy. (*Slavonic Review*, December).
- The Soviet and the Baltic. Robert Machray (*Fortnightly Review*, January).
- The National Movement in China. R. F. Johnston (*Quarterly Review*, January).

## THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- The Strength of England. George Aston (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Influence of English Political Thought in Russia. Paul Milyukov (*Slavonic Review*, December).
- The History of Holland in English Schoolbooks. P. Geyl (*History*, January).
- The Genesis of the Public Record Office. R. A. Roberts (*Edinburgh Review*, January).
- Some British Ambassadors at Paris. Beckles Willson (*Contemporary Review*, January).
- Early Church Government in Britain. Clement A. West (*London Quarterly Review*, January).
- The British Bishops at the Council of Arles, 314. S. N. Miller (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Antiquity of the English Village. H. J. Randall (*Edinburgh Review*, January).
- The Financial Organization of the Manor. A. E. Levett (*Economic History Review*, January).
- The Archdeacons of Canterbury under Archbishop Ceolnoth, 833-870. M. Deanesly (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Crown and Its Creditors, 1327-1333. James F. Willard (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Campaign of Radcot Bridge in December, 1387. J. N. L. Myres (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Merchant Adventurers' Company in the Reign of Elizabeth. George Unwin (*Economic History Review*, January).
- Northamptonshire Wage Assessments of 1560 and 1667. B. H. Putnam (*Economic History Review*, January).
- Queen Caroline and the Church. Rev. Norman Sykes (*History*, January). Historical revision.
- The Excise Scheme of 1733. Raymond Turner (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Small Landowner, 1780-1832, in the Light of the Land Tax Assessments. E. Davies (*Economic History Review*, January).
- Experiences of a British Commissariat Officer in the

- Peninsular War, II. H. A. Dallas (*Army Quarterly*, January).
- Great Britain and the Persian Gulf (concluded). Guy Coleridge (*Nineteenth Century*, January).
- Downing Street and Arab Potentates. L. (*Foreign Affairs*, January).
- Henry I's Charter to London. H. G. Richardson (*English Historical Review*, January).
- Charles Mackay: England's Forgotten War Correspondent. George S. Wykoff (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, January).
- American Civil War.
- The West Highlanders in Peace and War. R. C. MacLeod (*Scottish Historical Review*, January).
- A Diplomatic Incident at the Papal Court, 1491. Cecil Roth (*Scottish Historical Review*, January). The question of precedence between the Scottish and Neapolitan envoys.
- The Imprisonment of the Earl of Arran. Marguerite Wood (*Scottish Historical Review*, January).
- Scottish Local Records and the Report of the Departmental Committee of 1925 on Sheriff Court Records. David Murray (*Scottish Historical Review*, January).
- Glasgow's Ancient Craft Gilds, XVI. John C. Black (*Scots Magazine*, January).
- The Irish Free State in 1926. Hugh A. Law (*Contemporary Review*, January).
- Scottish Makers of Canada. Keith Morris (*Scots Magazine*, January). Sir Sandford Fleming.
- The Evolution of the Sentimental Idea of Empire; a Canadian View. A. R. M. Lower (*History*, January).
- Lord Curzon's Frontier Policy and the Formation of the Northwest Frontier Province, 1901. Capt. C. Collin Davies (*Army Quarterly*, January).
- Comparative Chart of Indian History. Stephen G. Krushnaya (*Scholastic*, January 8).
- An Outline of the History of the Royal Indian Navy. Bosun (*Fighting Forces*, January).
- Race Questions in South Africa. Patrick Duncan (*Foreign Affairs*, January).
- GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS
- The Origins of the War. J. W. Headlam Morley (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- Three Days in Belgrade: July, 1914. Hamilton F. Armstrong (*Foreign Affairs*, January).
- The Other Side of the Hill, VI. (*Army Quarterly*, January.) The German defense of Bernafay and Trônes Woods, July 2-14, 1916, part II.
- Some Aspects of Maude's Campaign in Mesopotamia. Maj. R. H. Dewing (*Army Quarterly*, January).
- Italian Intervention and the Secret Treaty of London. R. W. Seton-Watson (*Slavonic Review*, December).
- The United States Navy in the World War. Josephus Daniels (*North Carolina Historical Review*, January).
- Notes on Foreign (non-British) War Books. (*Army Quarterly*, January).
- UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES
- American Imperialism. W. Alison Phillips (*Edinburgh Review*, January).
- Primogeniture and Entailed Estates in America. Richard B. Morris (*Columbia Law Review*, January).
- Historical Development of the Law of Business Competition, II. Franklin D. Jones (*Yale Law Review*, January).
- American History in British Textbooks. Edgar E. Robinson (*Landmark*, January).
- America: an Episode in the History of the World, V, VI. Hendrik W. Van Loon (*Woman's Home Companion*, February, March).
- The Life of James Marquette (concluded). Henry S. Spalding, S. J. (*Illinois Catholic Historical Review*, January).
- William Gooch: Successful Royal Governor of Virginia. Percy S. Flippin (*North Carolina Historical Review*, January).
- A Great Louisiana Plantation of the French Colonial Period, 1737-1738. Henry P. Dart (*Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, October, 1925).
- Imprisonment for Debt (Contraint de Corps) in French Louisiana, 1743. Henry P. Dart (*Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, October, 1925).
- Encouragement of the Slave-Trade. William R. Riddell (*Journal of Negro History*, January).
- Slave Labor in the Virginia Iron Industry (continued). Kathleen Bruce (*William and Mary College Quarterly*, January).
- The Development of Christianity in the Southwest. Robert G. Raymer (*Methodist Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Preservation of North Carolina History. J. G. deR. Hamilton (*North Carolina Historical Review*, January).
- Some North Carolina Tracts of the Eighteenth Century. William K. Boyd (*North Carolina Historical Review*, January). XII. The Independent Citizen (1787); XIII. A Petition and Remonstrance to the President and Congress of the United States (1791?).
- Early Followers of Captain Gray. F. O. Howay (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, January).
- Oregon Geographic Names, V. Lewis A. McArthur (*Oregon Historical Quarterly*, December).
- The Gateway to the Oregon Country. Charles H. Carey (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, January).
- Broughton on the Columbia in 1792. J. Neilson Barry (*Oregon Historical Quarterly*, December).
- New York and Astoria. Lawrence F. Abbott (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, January).
- Service and Supply in the War of 1812. Marguerite M. McKee (*Quartermaster Review*, January-February).
- Some Lights and Shadows of a Great Event. James A. Renshaw (*Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, October, 1925). Battle of New Orleans.
- James Douglas on the Columbia, 1830-1849. W. N. Sage (*Oregon Historical Quarterly*, December).
- Sidelights on the Sibley Expedition from the Diary of a Private. John P. Pritchett (*Minnesota History*, December).
- The Site of the Northwest Company Post on Sandy Lake. Irving H. Hart (*Minnesota History*, December).
- The Pioneers (Iowa). (Palimpsest, January.) Various aspects of early life by B. F. Shambaugh, Bruce E. Mahan, J. A. Swisher, John E. Briggs, Ruth A. Gallaher, Pauline P. Grahame, H. H. Hoeltje, Roy V. Sherman, G. F. Robeson.
- The American Revolver and the West. Walter P. Webb (*Scribner's*, February).
- British Mediation between France and the United States in 1834-6. C. K. Webster (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Pike's Peak Rush, 1859. Joseph R. Kingsburg (*Colorado Magazine*, January).
- The Greenback Party in Texas. Roscoe C. Martin (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, January).
- Early Library Development in New York State, 1800-1900. II. George W. Cole (*Bulletin of the New York Public Library*, December).
- Education of the Negro in Charleston, South Carolina, prior to the Civil War. C. W. Birnie (*Journal of Negro History*, January).
- Was Lincoln an Ideal? (*Tyler's Quarterly*, January.)
- Lincoln as a Lawyer. Lord Shaw of Dunfermline (*Forum*, February).
- Lincoln and Lee. "The Southerner" (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, January).
- Michigan Democracy in the Civil War. John P. Pritchett (*Michigan History Magazine*, January).
- Confederate Forces in the War for Southern Independence. (*Tyler's Quarterly*, January).
- The Movement for Agricultural Reorganization in the Cotton South during the Civil War. E. Merton Coulter (*North Carolina Historical Review*, January).
- Journalism in New Orleans between 1880 and 1900. John S. Kendall (*Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, October, 1925).
- The United States in the Philippines. Charles Petrie (*Edinburgh Review*, January).

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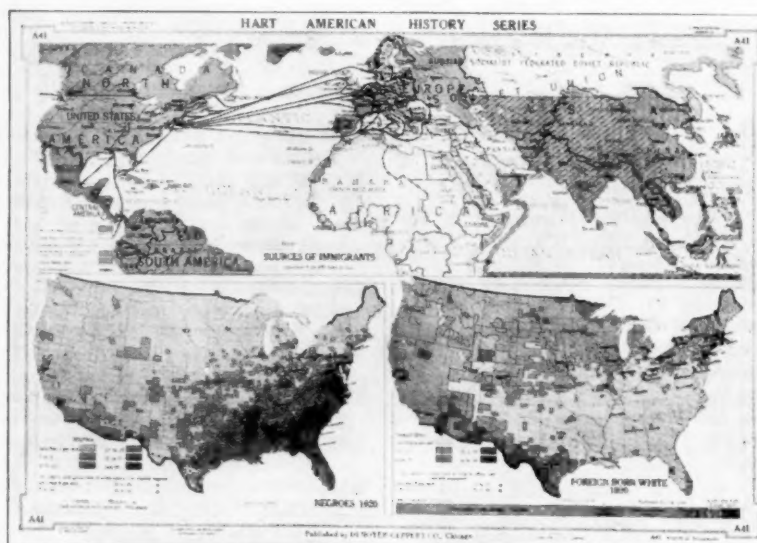
Edited by Albert Bushnell Hart in collaboration with David Maydole Matteson

### UPPER PART

Quota Areas and  
Lines of Immigra-  
tion  
Non-Quota Areas  
Official Barred  
Zone  
Exclusion Areas

### LOWER LEFT

Distribution of  
Negro population  
with Urban phases  
Distribution of  
Orientals  
Mexicans



Map A41 Sources of Immigrants; the Negro and Foreign Born Populations

### LOWER RIGHT

Distribution of  
Foreign Born  
Whites with Urban  
phases

### THE GRAPH

Proportions, in our  
total population, of  
Native white of  
native parents  
Indians, Orientals  
Negroes  
N. W. Europe  
stock  
S. and E. Europe  
stock

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